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HAROLD BENJAMIN, *Consulting Editor*

THE CURRICULUM

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THE CURRICULUM

CHESTER T. McNERNEY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE



New York Toronto London
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1953

THE CURRICULUM

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PREFACE

The curriculum is the central problem in any society that attempts to organize its educational program. In reality this problem has three tenses: (1) How much of the heritage of the past shall be taught; (2) to what extent should problems of the present form the framework for study; and (3) what attempt should be made to forecast future problems and utilize them in forming the basis for the curriculum. At this point, the difficult problem of attempting to determine if the curriculum should be pupil-centered or subject-centered is raised.

All modern curriculums must be pupil-centered, for they are created to educate young people, not to preserve through memory a selected pattern of historical facts, rules, and formulas. At the same time, it is necessary to realize that pupil-centered curriculums must utilize materials of the past, present, and forecastable future in order to provide an adequate education. This problem thus becomes one of first placing emphasis upon the developmental needs of young people and then reevaluating what is taught, and how it is taught, in terms of these needs.

What, then, are the basic needs of young people, or what functions are the schools supposed to serve? The primary function of the school is to help young people become better citizens of a democratic society. As a result of their education young people should eventually be able to improve as well as to perpetuate the ways of democracy. Not only should they be able to improve and perpetuate these ways; they should develop an abiding desire to do so.

Many attempts have been made to state the basic needs of a democratic citizen. These statements are usually referred to as objectives for education, imperative needs of youth, or types of life needs as educational objectives. Basically these objectives identify areas of living in which each citizen needs competency in order to live democratically. At intervals certain objectives seem to receive more emphasis than others, but it must be remembered that the good citizen lives a complete life all the time; he does not live it in segments. He is not a worker one hour, a moral being the next, a citizen the third hour, etc.; he is a complete being; he is virtually all things at all times.

This concept of the complete individual who is a good citizen engaging in a series of highly integrated activities demands that he

be provided an education that is unsegmented. Thus, reading cannot be separated and pigeonholed as something entirely separate from arithmetic, just as English cannot be isolated as something which has no reference to chemistry. In addition, it can be said that none of these subjects is important unless young people learn to use them in order to solve their present and future problems of living.

Most curriculums need some degree of reorganization in order to become more real or lifelike to young people and more meaningful to society in general. Methods of integrating the learning experiences that young people live, and of providing them with time to solve their problems, must be developed. As society changes, the curriculum must also change. This change cannot occur unless teachers continuously study the changing nature of society and grow in service in order to help young people more adequately to accept their citizenship responsibilities.

The curriculum can be no better than the teacher conceives it to be. But teacher conceptions may profit little unless they are accompanied by parent acceptance, support, and understanding. The education of young people is only partly the responsibility of the school. An adequate continuous curriculum can only be created when the home and community are willing to cooperate with the school in helping young people achieve the objectives of life in a changing, prospering democratic society.

The purpose of this text is thus reflected throughout in the attempt to help all who are interested in the education of young people to develop an understanding of better methods of organizing, presenting, and living the curriculum. One cannot learn to live through a sheer consideration of the problems of the dead. One cannot learn to be an active citizen in a school society that is inactive. Cooperative human relationships cannot be developed in an atmosphere of dictation. Respect cannot be commanded through the medium of fear; the broader aspects of morality are not understood if one merely memorizes certain moral principles. Respect, morality, citizenship itself are merely abstractions, like the number four until it is associated with some unit of measure, in this instance some measure of the democratically acquired skills, competencies, and attitudes that are basic to efficient, meaningful life in a democracy.

CHESTER T. MCNERNEY

STATE COLLEGE, PA.
FEBRUARY, 1953

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

The ancient Persians, according to Herodotus, had a simple curriculum; they taught their boys to ride, to shoot, and to speak the truth. These essentials of their schooling were presumably derived from what they thought were the major needs of their society. The horse was their chief instrument of transport. The bow was their primary weapon. The sanctity of their word was the heart of their ethics. To the extent that excellence in these matters could be developed by instruction, the main elements of their education were clearly designated for them.

When the Persians had decided on the educational experiences that would make their children good members of the family, the clan, the tribe, and the nation, they had answered the first basic question confronting every people who would develop a formal educational system. How shall we teach these children to be better members of our society?

As soon as the Persians or anyone else attempts to answer the first question adequately, however, they run into the task of looking at the total pattern of the child's learning outside school. What does and what should this boy learn in the home, the market place, the temple, or anywhere else? What can and what should be taught to him in the school?

Most pressing of all reasons for this examination of the entire set of influences affecting the child's behavior has always been the concern of every group for the learning of what it considered to be necessary moral and spiritual values. What education will make this child good for himself and his people?

The next curricular concern of a people seeking to educate their children was the integration of the various parts of the learning experience. Did expert horsemanship need to be correlated with marksmanship? Was straight shooting connected in any way with straight talking and thinking?

The final question concerning a curriculum is the extent to which

it is going to be given to all or only to selected learners. In ancient Persia were the sons of horseless men to be given instruction in equitation? Were girls to be taught to use the bow? Were all children to be brought up to the same standard of truth?

These are questions which the present book discusses for our society and times. Clearly and cogently it reveals the issues and pictures the process of curriculum derivation. It shows what makes or breaks the curriculum. It tells how to do something about the curriculum.

The publishers and the editors are glad to present this work to the profession with confidence in its quality and usefulness. They congratulate the author on this latest of his contributions to the McGraw-Hill Series in Education.

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FEBRUARY, 1953

Chapter 1. THE FUNCTION OF THE CURRICULUM

Curriculum definitions are expressed in many ways, but the difference between them stems from one of two divergent opinions. According to one, the curriculum is that which is taught to a person in order to educate him. According to the other opinion, the curriculum is the environment in which the education takes place. The distance between these two opinions is far greater than appears at first, and it immediately involves the problem of determining the true function of the school. Those who hold to the first opinion base their definitions upon expressions such as "subjects or courses to be taken" and consider it to be the function of the school to cause boys and girls to "master" these things. Advocates of the second opinion believe it is the function of the school to create the type of environment with which an individual may interact in such a way that he will select, reorganize, and reconstruct those experiences which foster his further growth.

Traditionally schools have begun their study of curriculum problems by first considering the nature of the subject matter they teach. Such instances sharply illustrate the fact that many curriculum makers have fallen into the fallacy of confusing means with ends. These instances also increase the importance of considering the distance between the two divergent concepts of the curriculum. This is the distance between the traditional demands of the school and the needs of human beings. It is the long road away from a traditionally dominant assortment of subjects and courses, on one hand, to the living problems of a group of growing boys and girls, on the other.

BASIC CURRICULUM CHARACTERISTICS

In all societies some method is established for training the young to participate in the ways of living in the group of which they are members by birth. Primitive societies may accomplish this purpose through informal processes such as storytelling or training periods

conducted by the parents for their offspring. Passing through the various stages of youth into adulthood in such societies may be a seemingly uncomplicated process that is accomplished in an environment devoid of tensions. That such a program of education is not ineffective has been proved by the fact that some of our earliest forms of societies survived and eventually evolved into more complex organizations.

Today it is difficult to compare established curriculums in various national systems of education because the forces and conditions which create them are different. However, all curriculums that function in progressing nations seem to have three basic characteristics in common:

1. Definite and dynamic objectives that grow out of the values held by the sponsoring nation
2. A curriculum that makes provision for the growth that is necessary in order to attain the objectives
3. Methods of evaluating the product of the educational process

To be in accord with these characteristics, education in America must be based on democratic values. These values must be reflected in all statements of objectives for education. Thus, an analysis of the objectives should divulge the personal and social values upon which the American democratic way of life is based.

OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATION

A considerable amount of disparity exists in the interpretation of the objectives for education. On the one side there are those who believe that a specific set of objectives should exist for each subject and that the pupils and teacher should employ specific methods in order to attain them. The opposite side is presented by Dewey, who states: ¹

. . . the educational process has no end beyond itself; it is its own end.
. . . in reality there is nothing to which growth is relative save more growth, there is nothing to which education is subordinate save more education. . . the purpose of school education is to insure the continuance of education by organizing the powers that insure growth.

¹ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, pp. 59, 60, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916.

The critics of each of the preceding positions have been either directly or indirectly responsible for causing the present emphasis in education to be basically social in nature. The attainment of specific objectives as such certainly did not foster the development of a social point of view. On the other hand, the extreme progressives who followed and often misinterpreted Dewey did little to promote the social welfare in their programs based almost entirely on a philosophy of individualism. The depression of the 1930's and the events and results of the Second World War stimulated the return of a social emphasis to educational objectives. Accompanying this return is the challenge of restating and clarifying the values that can be derived from the democratic way of life, and of changing the curriculum in order to more nearly attain them.

SELECTED STATEMENTS OF OBJECTIVES

The rapid expansion of public education in the first part of the twentieth century created a need for a systematic reevaluation of the objectives for education. This mandate resulted in the creation or assembling of many "statements of objectives" which represent either a classification of life activities or a listing of the areas in which competency and understanding are needed in order to live effectively.

One of the most widely publicized statements of objectives was formulated by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education.² This list is commonly called "the seven cardinal principles of secondary education" and includes objectives for:

1. Health
2. Command of the fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation efficiency
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure time
7. Ethical character

In the period following the First World War, Alexander J. Inglis became one of America's leading authorities on education. According to Inglis:³

² *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 11-16, Bureau of Education Bulletin 35, 1917.

³ Alexander J. Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 367-368, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918.

Three important groups of activities require the participation of the individual and establish three fundamental aims for secondary education, as for all education, in America. These three groups of activities are distinguished accordingly as they involve primarily: (1) participation in the duties of citizenship and in the not-directly economic relations of co-operative group life; (2) participation in the production and distribution of economic utilities; (3) the life of the individual as a relatively free and independent personality. Thus the three fundamental aims of secondary education are:

- (1) The preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and co-operating member of society—the Social-Civic Aim;
- (2) The preparation of the individual as a prospective worker and producer—the Economic-Vocational Aim;
- (3) The preparation of the individual for those activities which, while primarily involving individual action, the utilization of leisure, and the development of personality, are of great importance to society—the Individualistic-Avocational Aim.

It must be recognized that these three aims are not mutually exclusive, but rather that they are in a high degree interrelated and interdependent. Taken together they constitute the Social Aim of secondary education in the broadest sense of the term. Every individual as a social unit is at the same time a citizen, a worker, and a relatively independent personality. The three phases of his life cannot be divorced, and in the secondary school preparation for no one of those phases of life should be neglected.

Franklin Bobbitt employed the method of "activity analysis" in order to determine what the objectives for education ought to be. From his analysis of the "range of human experience" he listed objectives for the following areas: ⁴

1. Social Intercommunication
2. Maintenance of Physical Efficiency
3. Efficient Citizenship
4. General Social Contacts and Relationships
5. Leisure Occupations
6. General Mental Efficiency
7. Religious Attitudes and Activities
8. Parental Responsibilities

⁴ Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*, pp. 8-31, The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1924.

9. Unspecialized Practical Activities
10. Occupational Activities

Harl Douglass has developed the following list of "Types of Life Needs as Educational Objectives":⁶

1. Education for Citizenship
2. Education for Home Membership
3. Education for Leisure Life
4. Vocational Efficiency
5. Physical and Mental Health
6. Preparation for Continued Living

The Educational Policies Commission in their publication *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*⁷ set forth the objectives that follow.

1. *The Objectives of Self-realization*—The Inquiring Mind, Speech, Reading, Writing, Number, Sight and Hearing, Health, Health Habits, Public Health, Recreation, Intellectual Interests, Esthetic Interests, Character.
2. *The Objectives of Human Relationship*—Respect for Humanity, Friendships, Cooperation, Courtesy, Appreciation of the Home, Conservation of the Home, Homemaking, Democracy in the Home.
3. *The Objectives of Economic Efficiency*—Occupational Information, Occupational Choice, Occupational Efficiency, Occupational Adjustment, Occupational Appreciation, Personal Economics, Consumer Judgment, Efficiency in Buying, Consumer Protection.
4. *The Objectives of Civic Responsibility*—Social Justice, Social Activity, Social Understanding, Critical Judgment, Tolerance, Conservation, Social Applications of Science, World Citizenship, Law Observance, Economic Literacy, Political Citizenship, Devotion to Democracy.

Growth is a continuous process. Educative experiences must enable boys and girls to live more fully in the present and help prepare them to live in a socially meaningful way in the future. The school environment must be adjusted to their needs. All experiences they

⁶ Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, pp. 17-25, American Council on Education, 1937.

⁷ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Educational Policies Commission, 1938. (This publication is no longer in print. The main points have been incorporated into a volume entitled *Policies for Education in American Democracy*.)

have in it should promote their growth in a psychologically sound manner. For example, the child who is introduced to the concept of "citizenship" in the elementary school should first consider citizenship in his schoolroom. He should then expand his concept to include the corridors, toilets, playground, route to and from school, etc. In other words, with his group, progressing at the rate at which he and his group can make satisfactory progress, he should begin with the familiar and proceed to the unfamiliar. Thus the child acquires both knowledge and understanding.

As the child increases in both knowledge and understanding he will be more capable of responding to an analytical approach. For example, he may consider the theory of "world citizenship," which is an unknown thing he cannot see, cannot touch, and has not experienced. However, by utilizing the knowledge gained from previous experiences and integrating it with new information that is applicable to this problem, he will be enabled to understand the theory.

THE CHANGING EMPHASIS IN THE OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATION

As societal values change, the objectives for education must also change, or else the school will fail to serve the functions for which it is established. In some instances it is difficult to determine which change first, the values or the objectives. Actually, these two factors should be so closely integrated that to try to establish which one changes first in each instance would be unimportant if not altogether meaningless.

The increased use of the words "attitude," "appreciation," and "understanding" is indicative of the trend to include a great amount of *social emphasis* in any consideration of educational objectives. This trend in emphasis has received a great amount of impetus from the long-known but reluctantly admitted fact that men are interdependent. An increasing awareness is also developing in regard to the importance of creating an educational environment in which boys and girls can have meaningful experiences in making social adjustments. Accompanying this practice is the attempt to help all youth develop an appreciation for the satisfaction that is derived from performing service for others. This type of emphasis is illustrated in the follow-

ing statement by the Educational Policies Commission of the objectives for the elementary school in wartime:⁷

1. Lay a sound foundation of skills and habits of accuracy in reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic.

2. Maintain the greatest possible amount of security, courage, and self-confidence. Avoid undue excitement, pathological hatreds and fears, and hysteria. Keep discussion of the war in bounds. Keep informed regarding the home and family problems of each child so that the child whose mother works in a war industry or the child who has relatives in posts of danger may always be treated with understanding.

3. Promote good health. Teach the proper choice of food to secure good nutrition in wartime diets. Stress the prevention, isolation, and proper treatment of contagious diseases. Cooperate in all community efforts to improve housing, sanitation, and recreation, and to provide for necessary child care centers.

4. Provide many opportunities for community service, both of a wartime and peacetime nature. Participate in the salvage, Red Cross, war savings, victory garden, and other federal programs. Guide these experiences so that maximum learning in terms of a participating democratic citizenship will result. The habits, attitudes, and information that elementary school children acquire by engaging in war service activities are more important than the income from the sale of stamps or the collection of salvage.

5. Expand and improve the teaching of cultural and physical geography. The end in view is to develop an accurate knowledge of the earth as the home of man, of the principal resources of soil and culture in the various regions of the globe, and of the interdependence and relationships of peoples and nations. Show the key position held by the people of the United States and stress their share of the responsibility for world order, justice, and security.

6. Emphasize the ideals of freedom and equality for which we are fighting. Teach the history of these ideals in this country and elsewhere. Develop the clearest possible understanding of these ideals and the deepest possible loyalty to them.

7. Enrich the artistic, literary, and musical experiences of the children and the community, partly in order to provide a release for wartime emotions and partly as a tool for self-realization in childhood and adult life.

⁷ *What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime*, pp. 4-6, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1943.

It is unfortunate that the impetus of war was needed to bring forth this fine statement, most of which can be adapted to peacetime living.

As the role of American democracy is expanded, the education of those individuals who have leadership ability becomes an objective of paramount importance. Little agreement exists concerning the best method of implementing the attainment of such an objective. However, the necessity of attaining this objective is urgent.

There is literally no end to the subdivisions that could be made in any statement of objectives for education. Such statements tend to be more delimited when they are based upon research that identifies the needs of children rather than basing them upon desires that adults hold for children. It would certainly be desirable if these two bases were more identical, but unfortunately they are frequently far apart. Despite the controversy that frequently dominates any discussion of objectives most educators would at least agree that ⁸

. . . the major purpose of education is to foster, promote and develop democracy as a way of life. We are living in a democratic society; we believe it offers us the best in living. Since democracy as a way of life is a way of behaving, it follows the function of the schools is to help boys and girls develop democratic ways of behaving, including attitudes, habits, social skills, ideals, interests and appreciations.

SELECTED ASPECTS OF MOTIVATION

In some ways America is characterized by the methods various individuals employ in order to gain success. Since these methods lead to the end values held by many people it is most appropriate that they be considered here. In a *Sociological Approach to Education* ⁹ the Cooks present an interpretation of the routes many individuals follow to success. An analysis of the routes reveals the values held by the individuals who follow them.

As represented in the diagram on page 9, people struggle first of all for survival, that is, to live and to continue living. There will be

⁸ *Action for Curriculum Improvement*, p. 41, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1951.

⁹ By permission from *A Sociological Approach to Education*, pp. 116-118, by Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsyth Cook. Copyright 1950, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

some deviants to whom this fact does not apply, but this discussion is concerned only with the "general norm, the mainline pattern of motivation." Following survival, people want "creature comforts" and security. For some security is "the end of struggle, the conservation of energy, the maintenance of an established way of life."

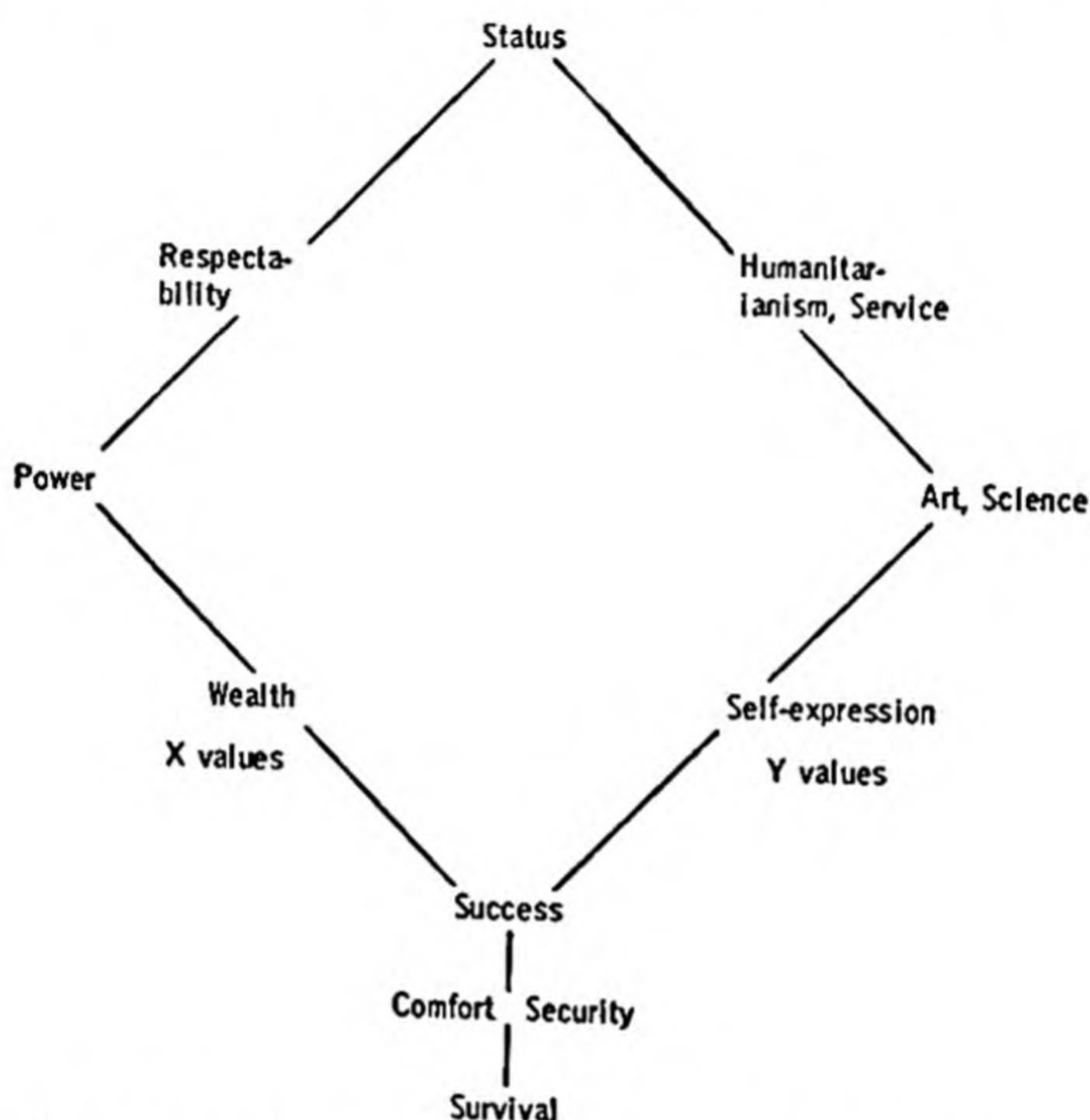


DIAGRAM 1. Kinds of motivations in our society and their possible interrelations.

There are many who will desire to move on beyond the level of security and seek success by one of two routes. One route of Y values involves such things as "creative effort, service to others, the never-ending search for meaning. These are the rewards offered by the fine arts, by humanitarianism, science, philosophy, and religion." The other route of X values involves the acquisition of "more wealth, more power, and so on." If one gains the top of the "wealth-power pinnacle" he may search for a different type of "respectability" and in so doing devote his energies to Y-type values.

"X values are unlike Y values in several ways. For instance, they are a composite, an interactive whole, in which each influences the other. As one succeeds to wealth, he has greater power, which means more wealth, more power, and so on."

These kinds of motivation do not necessarily exist in isolation from each other. However, they do indicate certain types of problems which should be the concern of all curriculum makers. For example, the democratic way of life may well become stagnant if the great majority of the people want only security and desire only to maintain an unchanging, established way of life. Such an attitude hinders progress and may well be the most dangerous enemy of the desired security. On the other hand, it is to be hoped that those who strive for the success beyond "security" will not be dualistic. In other words, it is not desirable that they should ruthlessly and singularly follow the route of wealth, power, more wealth, etc., to a maximum point, and only then begin to consider Y values. Such behavior is not characteristic of the well-balanced, well-adjusted individual.

OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATION ARE INTENDED FOR ALL YOUTH

Undoubtedly, there are many who believe that it would be wise to provide a secondary education of a strictly academic nature only for the select few who can profit by it. If the democratic form of life is to be advanced, such a belief must be abolished. Most people who hold such a biased belief agree that all youth should have the opportunity of an elementary education, if for no other reason than to raise the literacy level of the democratic citizenry. However, the basic acquaintance with the fundamental tools for independent study and the basic introduction to the attitudes and appreciations that all need in order to be effective citizens is not enough to develop the understandings that must accompany them. Growth is a continuous process, and the degree of understanding required of all effective participants in our society can be adequately developed only through a continuously intensified program of learning experiences that have social significance and utility for the learner.

Many curriculums in the past have been helpful only to select groups of students preparing for advanced schools of one type or another. Many of these curriculums were also constructed on the false psychological belief that certain "courses" were "good" for anyone who could master them. As long as such beliefs and practices continue to dominate curriculum construction, it is probably true that only a select few can profit by continued attendance at school. It is equally true that these selected persons can profit as much

through their associations with each other as they do from the courses they are required to take.

The democratic belief in the importance of all individuals having the minimum of a secondary education destroys the possibility of dealing only with a selected group of students at that level. This belief poses a very challenging task for all curriculum makers. It means that curriculum offerings must be broad enough to provide for the range of needs to be found in any unselected school-age population. It is difficult to envisage such curriculums being maintained with the present school facilities and on current school budgets. This difficulty can be partly surmounted by more effectively using the resources available in each school community. Since education grows out of life, and is supplementary to and preparatory for life, it seems only reasonable to recognize and use all educative forces present in the community to meet the life needs of our continuing unselected school population.

The basic problem in capitalizing upon the various types of educational forces in a community is a problem of organization. A study of almost any community will reveal that some educational agencies are duplicating, occasionally at a tremendous cost, the work of each other. In many communities it is possible to find educative forces that have not been identified as such or have not been incorporated into the educational plans that have been developed under the leadership of the school. Thus, in many school communities two extremely important educational problems exist: (1) the construction and organization of curriculums in such a manner that the needs of all youth will be met and (2) the identification and utilization of all community resources which can provide the types of learning experiences that are needed individually and collectively by our youth.

SUMMARY

There are two principal bases upon which all curriculum definitions are constructed. According to one, the curriculum is that which is taught to a person. According to the other opinion, the curriculum is the environment in which the education takes place. Conceptions of the function of the curriculum can be matched with each of these bases. In the first instance, it is assumed that desirable growth takes place when boys and girls master subjects or courses.

In the second instance, it is maintained that growth takes place when an individual is actively interacting with his environment.

The distance between the two conceptions of the curriculum is great. The same distance exists between the philosophies that form the bases for statements of the objectives for education. Adherents of one position maintain that education has no end beyond itself; it is its own end. Opposed to this position is the belief that a specific set of objectives should exist for each subject. In spite of the distance between these opposing beliefs, adherents of each agree that the main purpose of education is to "foster, promote, and develop democracy as a way of life."

In many ways, America is most sharply characterized by the methods various individuals employ in order to gain success. Methods lead to end values. Therefore, it is a responsibility of public educators to create the types of curriculums that will cause youth to understand, appreciate, and select those values which are derived from the American conception of democracy.

Objectives for education are intended for all youth in America. This means that curriculum offerings must be broad enough to provide for the range of needs to be found in any unselected school population. Curriculums to meet these needs cannot be maintained in the existing school facilities and on current school budgets.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. What common values should be shared by American citizens? What is the relationship between these values and the various statements of the objectives for education? As you answer these questions be sure that the meaning of all words or terms that you use are perfectly clear.

2. Conduct a survey among the students in your school in order to determine the objectives they have for the present and future. When the results of the survey have been tabulated correlate them with any commonly accepted statement of the objectives for education.

3. Construct an inventory of the reasons why men are interdependent.

4. Construct an inventory of local, national, and international instances wherein men who realize their interdependence have engaged in action that has improved the lot of all concerned. Do these instances possess any qualities in common?

5. Select an area of subject matter such as history or science, or a broad integrated area such as language arts. Trace the gradual intensification of the experiences related to this area. Begin with the point of

inception and continue to the point of completion or end of the twelfth grade, whichever is first.

6. Identify several examples of curriculums representing varying degrees of complexity that exist in the world today. Determine the relationship between the degree of curriculum complexity and the presence or absence of democratic life practices. Each group that attempts this project must first delimit their interpretation of the word "complexity."

7. Identify the forces that are causing changes in the objectives for education.

8. To what extent should the objectives for public education be basically controlled by the necessity for social, economic, and political efficiency?

9. A series of X values and Y values are presented in this chapter. What factors could operate to decrease the distance that frequently exists between these two sets of values?

10. Why must a program of general and differentiated public education be maintained for all youth in America?

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Chapter 2. ORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM

Every curriculum is composed of many interdependent parts each of which has a special function or relation with respect to the whole. In a dynamic society those who direct the growth of boys and girls must clearly understand the nature of this interrelationship. The curriculum must always be alterable. It must be composed of activities that are natural for each of the stages of human growth and development that it encompasses.

Any curriculum created to help boys and girls live more meaningfully and effectively must be organized in some manner. Five closely related reasons support this contention: (1) It is imperative that time be allotted for pupils to work on problems with which they are vitally concerned; (2) the sum of all the learning experiences in any curriculum is so great that they must be organized to enable pupils and teachers to understand the contemporaneous relationships that exist between them; (3) for education to be effective it is necessary to establish unity between the various parts of a sequence of natural learning activities; (4) curriculum change must always be based upon careful research, planning, and organization; and (5) the expansion of public education has been so great that administrators need some type of organization in order to expedite the solution of administrative and supervisory problems.

Educators have long been concerned with the problem of determining the "best" method of curriculum organization. Various plans have been tried but those that persist are progressively more pupil-centered and concentrate upon helping pupils solve their problems in a satisfactory manner. Some curriculum makers prefer to classify problems in two categories, *pupil* and *societal*. On one hand, attaining economic independence, acquiring a set of values, adjusting to a peer group, etc., are representative of pupil problems. On the other hand, society demands that pupils learn to "behave" in a socially acceptable manner, become good citizens, use the fundamental skills, etc. Unfortunately, a great distance frequently exists between these

two sets of demands. This distance can certainly be shortened and eventually obliterated. Before this can occur it will be necessary for all concerned to further their understanding of the changing nature of society.

THE CHANGING NATURE OF SOCIETY

One of the outstanding characteristics of a democratic society is the factor of change. This factor always involves choice making, and one of the primary functions of education is to help boys and girls learn to make objective choices as a result of reflective thought. To understand the continuing immediacy of this problem it is necessary to consider the nature of some of the important societal changes that have occurred.

Not over one hundred years ago a boy born to a father who was a blacksmith probably followed his father's trade. His formal schooling was very brief, and at an early age he became an apprentice to his father. During this period of apprenticeship, he learned the skills of blacksmithing and furthered his relationships with his father's customers and their children. From the beginning, he knew his future business would be built upon face-to-face relationships, his work directly evaluated, and his personal life regulated by the intimacy of his fellow community members. His relationships with the world beyond his immediate community were very infrequent. In this instance the blacksmith is a member of an established and apparently unchanging community. Each community member has appointed tasks to perform for the other members. All respected members accept their share of responsibility for the community because they have the desire to do so.

Elton Mayo¹ in his brief discussion of the work of Frederic Le Play reviews this type of intracommunity relationship in the following manner:

. . . in simpler communities, where the chief occupation is agriculture or fishing or some primary activity, there is a stability of the social order that has ceased to characterize highly developed industrial centers. In these simpler communities every individual understands the various economic activities and social functions, and, in greater or less degree, participates in them. The bonds of family and kinship (real or fictitious)

¹ Elton Mayo, *The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, p. 5, Division of Research, Harvard University, 1945.

operate to relate every person to every social occasion; the ability to cooperate effectively is at a high level. The situation is not simply that the society exercises a powerful compulsion on the individual; on the contrary, the social code and the desires of the individual are, for all practical purposes, identical. Every member of the group participates in social activities because it is his chief desire to do so.

The preceding examples seem to portray a very desirable condition. There are many people who would encourage modern man to look backward, to return to such an established way of life. The truth of the matter is that man cannot return to the established ways of other years, for they and the conditions that made them possible no longer exist. Today society is characterized by a type of industrialization that was at first permitted to emphasize material things to the sacrifice of human beings. Industrialization proceeded at such a pace that the balance between man and his potential possessions became very uneven. Indeed, it seems that for a time man existed for the material things which he had created and which were supposed to serve him.

It is not necessary to relinquish the advantages that can be obtained from things such as the automobile, airplane, power machinery, radio, television, radar, penicillin, and atomic reactions. To desire to destroy these and other devices that have thrust man into an era of rapid change would be to destroy and sacrifice on an altar of human incompetency the type of creative ability that has been given to man alone. Gradually the error of permitting the machines to dominate their creators and users is being corrected. An integral part of this correction is the establishment of the type of harmony that must exist between all men, else they destroy one another. To create this harmony in a society characterized by change is the greatest educational challenge man has met to date. To meet this challenge intelligently it is necessary to reorganize most curriculums in such a way that youth do not become stagnated in a maze of unrelated and overemphasized "school subjects." Such reorganization must also be based upon an understanding of the factors which influence to varying degrees each child's ability to adjust to his society.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN MODERN SOCIETY

The social adjustment of a child must necessarily begin at birth. The objective planning of all aspects of the adjustment process cannot

begin for each child until it is possible to study his needs and assay his potential abilities. Despite the tremendous advance that has been made in the development of measuring devices, methods with which to determine the potential abilities of all children are not readily accessible.

Intense problems of social adjustment are frequently closely associated with problems that arise from the discrepancies between various groups in society. There are groups formed on the basis of race, nationality, type of occupation, neighborhood in which one lives, sex, and other types of social class characterizations. It is not an easy matter for the growing child to understand why and how each of these groups attempts to regulate behavior according to a predetermined pattern of values and needs. The problem is made more complex by the discrepancies that are revealed in any study of the standards held by societal groups represented by governmental organizations, the church, business organizations, schools, and the many families with various ethnic backgrounds. It is frequently more comfortable to drift along with the current into which one is born rather than to accept the challenge to adjust as an individual and as a group member to a better life, democratically conceived.

The increasing complexity of the organization of society increases the importance of the problems associated with social adjustment. Tappan's description of this problem illustrates its complex nature:²

. . . as the organization of society becomes more complex and its demands insistently higher, an ever-increasing proportion of the population must lose in the struggle to preserve personal integration and social adjustment. More of mankind reaches and makes a futile attempt to pass the limits of adaptability. The dull, the unstable, and the hypersensitive lose early in the contest and express their failure in a diverse symptomatology: in neurosis, suicide, insanity, alcoholism, and often in law violation. As the course becomes more complicated, others falter and are defeated. Civilization demands an extensive "denaturalizing" of the individual to meet its multiple demands and, as the scope of its injunctions grows, more and more individuals break under the intensifying pressures. Natural requirements extend beyond natural adaptability. Man comes to the place where abnormality, as defined by ideal standards of healthy adjustment, is normal, both statistically and genetically.

² By permission from *Juvenile Delinquency*, pp. 159-160, by Paul W. Tappan. Copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

The problems in adjustment that the complexity alone of the social heritage might produce are aggravated by the rapidity of contemporary social change. In numerous significant areas of popular attitude, opinion, and behavior, the rates of change in twentieth-century America are little short of revolutionary. Sudden shifts of social values and ways of living, wrought through recent phases of industrialization and urbanization, have sped even faster under the urgency of modern, near-devastating wars. With the consequent loss of stability in the culture, man too is unstabilized and demoralized. Adjustment problems caused by rapid change are increased, too, by contemporary mobility: quick or frequent movements in residence, occupation, associates, and social class deprive him of coherence and security. He loses his roots, his loyalties, and his values. Today the adolescent awakens to an order unlike the one which nurtured his childhood; the adult discovers a world for which his maturing has ill prepared him; in middle age he is confronted by a strange world he never made and cannot understand; and in senescence he is cast off, the detritus of a social organism which grinds with ruthless efficiency. Human obsolescence is the huge cost of a hasty "progress" that destroys weak men as it creates a mighty machinery. If it is true that man is trained today to a wider adaptability, he gains this greater elasticity with a loss of stability and strength.

Because of human imperfections there is an irreducible minimum who will never be able to make a socially acceptable adjustment to life. The number of human beings of all ages who are failing in this adjustment process is certainly far in excess of this minimum and will remain so until a more continuous and adequate educational program is provided for them. This program must pervade the entire life of the individual. It can never be final and it must be characterized by the efforts of those who create it to prepare youth for the constant impact of *change* upon their lives. Human values must become more attainable, even in the face of the all-but-terrifying pressures that surround life in the modern world. Attitudes that allow for permissive human erosion, and the decay that accompanies human obsolescence, must be modified. Such modification is difficult to attain with the curriculum structures that exist in many schools. Consequently, a first requirement for educational modernization is curriculum evaluation and reorganization.

ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

At all public-school levels there is a sharp trend to move toward a more unified type of curriculum organization. This is especially

true at the elementary level where those areas of learning experiences that naturally belong together are so organized. The broad area of language arts, commonly composed of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and spelling, is an excellent example of this trend. However, this broad area is not separated from the other curricular areas because it is basic to all of them and should be evaluated in terms of its contribution to the whole curriculum.

The elementary school is specifically created for children, and they should not be subservient to a body of *subject matter*. This realization, based upon research into the developmental needs of boys and girls, has provided the motivation to free elementary education from the uncompromising subject-centered approach. Obviously, subject matter cannot be left out of the curriculum, but as the emphasis swings to the child, it becomes the means rather than the end of the program. The effective teacher must understand children, the environment in which they live, and the nature of subject matter. He must also have the ability to blend these three things together in such a way that children receive the maximum advantage from his understanding.

Units of Work. The primary function of all elementary schools is to provide the optimum growth environment for each child. To accomplish this function the teacher must be able to create a harmonious atmosphere that engenders a feeling of mutual respect between all who are associated in the classroom—teachers, children, and parents. Such a feeling is dependent upon each member of these three groups recognizing and respecting the dignity of each other member. The strength of a democratic nation and the development of an acceptable educational philosophy are both dependent upon this point.

As the subject-centered approach is discarded in elementary education, some form of the *unit method* almost invariably arises. The term "unit" is defined in a variety of ways, but the definitions seem to arise from one of two possible sources. One group of definitions is based upon subject matter and the other upon pupil interests and experience. Regardless of the base upon which they are built, most units possess the following common characteristics: (1) Each unit has a distinctive quality, and the type or quantity of experiences involved is determinable; (2) they serve a socially meaningful purpose for both pupils and teacher; and (3) they develop through an introduc-

tory or planning stage, a "study-work" stage, the activation of the results of study and work, and the evaluation stage.

Many elementary schools have assigned "general unit areas" for each grade. This practice is adopted to ensure a sequential program of instruction and to rid the program of needless duplication. Some educators oppose this practice, arguing that it hinders the teacher's opportunities to incorporate the pupils' purposes into the plan of study and work. This objection can be countered by directing attention to the word "general," and by reemphasizing the necessity for basic planning and for developing a sequential program in order to meet the growth needs of boys and girls.

Enriching Curriculum Activities. The elementary school of yesterday considered that the textbook offered the best possible material for instruction. Books still serve an important function in relation to the curriculum, but in the modern school they are considered to be only one source of information and experiences. In addition to books, teachers of today are enriching curriculums by utilizing field trips and excursions, resource persons, auditory aids, and construction activities. Modern teachers also realize that the planning and evaluation periods which precede and follow the use of any of these techniques and materials can also provide many opportunities for learning. On the other hand, the teacher and pupils must guard against the fallacy of selecting a technique or material for reasons of which the following quotations are indicative: "Let's go on a trip today. Miss —'s room went yesterday"; "We haven't had a motion picture this week"; "Let's take the orange books, they aren't as heavy as the red ones."

Modern elementary schools attempt to use the entire school day for purposeful learning. For example, the "recess period" can provide many excellent opportunities for planned social development as well as for individual hobbies, random play, or self-testing activities. The period in which children wait for the school bus can also be used profitably, especially if the children are permitted to share in the planning.

ORGANIZATION OF CORE CURRICULUMS

Like many educational terms "core curriculum" is not new, nor does it have a definite meaning. It is usually defined in terms of its

rather distinctive characteristics of which the following list is representative:

The core:

Cuts across major curriculum areas; it is not an added course.

There is a "relatedness in learning" infrequently found in separate subject classes.

Is pupil-centered. The problems at which pupils work are those which they and their teachers feel are important for them at their growth level.

Utilizes a broad variety of instructional materials and situations in order to solve problems selected for study.

Emphasizes cooperative planning and human relationships.

Emphasizes continuous evaluation, which is most functional when it is considered to be a cooperative endeavor between pupil and teacher.

Is usually scheduled for a double period, in some instances three or four periods.

Emphasizes improved individual and group guidance services.

Lessens the degree of change between each grade, thus improving the opportunity to provide a continuous flow of meaningful learning-experiences.

It is often difficult to appreciate the significance of an expression such as "core curriculum" merely by analyzing the characteristics associated with it. The following definition is tendered in an attempt to resolve or minimize this difficulty.

In a democratic school system the *core* is that part of the curriculum which provides youth an opportunity to develop an awareness of, and competency in relation to, the primary characteristics of a democratic society. It also provides the type of individual and group guidance that enables youth intelligently to select those experiences which help them to maintain and develop their unique interests and abilities. It is always centered upon the common problems of youth but is personalized to provide for the variety of experiences they must use to solve these problems.

It is important to notice that the list of core-curriculum characteristics and the preceding definition are both focused upon the pupil.

The ultimate objectives are centered around pupil growth in relation to methods of solving personal problems, and knowledge of, and competency in, the use of democratic processes. To attain these ends the knowledge and skills from many subject areas are selected and utilized for the solution of problems.

Why Have a Core Curriculum? The effective citizen in a democracy must be able to solve problems growing out of his personal and social needs. These problems represent many types of life activities. It is extremely doubtful if the subject-centered and memorization curriculum of the traditional secondary school contributed much, if anything, to the development of the ability to solve such problems.

Secondary-school curriculum makers have not been unaware of the increasing intensity of the problems faced by all youth. They have also been more than aware of the changing nature of the curriculum problem as the school population began to more nearly include "all the children." In many instances an attempt was made to meet the problems of youth by reshuffling existing courses, or further subdividing the existing curriculum. This procedure resulted in little change and courses such as home economics were still cooking or sewing, in some instances both, and the notion seemed to prevail that one prepared to become a citizen merely by studying about citizenship. Reorganization of this type is ineffective and certainly does not meet the important challenge contained in these paragraphs:³

The superintendent must see that all teaching accords with the ways in which boys and girls are known to learn most effectively. The teacher should organize his instruction around his knowledge of the pupils. This information, usually gained by use of cumulative records, involves a continuous study of each child. The activities in each grade should be pupil centered and should recognize the unitary and active nature of the learning process.

Since school failure, retardation, early drop-outs, and truancy have their roots in an inadequate curriculum and in ineffective learning-teaching situations, and since they are, at the same time, forerunners of future delinquency, it is imperative that the superintendent concern himself

³ *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, p. 138, National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-seventh Yearbook, Part I, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1948. Quoted by permission of the society.

with curriculum offerings and teaching methods as a fundamental aspect of delinquency prevention and control.

To provide youth with opportunities to participate actively in solving their problems, to develop a unitary concept of relationship between the areas from which learning experiences can be drawn, and to develop an awareness of the dominant problems faced by democracy have become curriculum issues of paramount importance. In order to cope more effectively with these issues core and core-type curriculums are being developed.

Subject-matter Combinations	Number of Cores
English and Social Studies.....	813
English and Social Studies and	
Science.....	75
Science and Mathematics.....	29
Science, Mathematics, and Vocational Skills.....	4
Science, Mathematics, and Hygiene.....	2
Science, Mathematics, and Physical Education.....	2
Science, Mathematics, and Industrial Arts.....	2
Science and Art.....	8
Science and Health.....	3
Mathematics.....	46
Mathematics and Shops or Home Economics.....	3
Mathematics, Art, and Music.....	2
Art or Music or both.....	13
Health.....	21
Other (one mention only).....	5
English and	
Science.....	9
Science and Health.....	7
Mathematics.....	6
Foreign Language.....	2
Art, Music, Physical Education.....	2
Social Studies and	
Science.....	9
Science and Health.....	4
Science, Music, and Art.....	3
Science and Mathematics.....	2
Mathematics.....	7
Science and	
Mathematics.....	28
Mathematics and Health.....	3
Health.....	4
Other (one mention only).....	5
Total courses.....	1,119

SOURCE: Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: An Inquiry into Practices*, p. 13, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1949.

Subject Combinations in Core Courses. The following statement appears in the report of a core-curriculum study conducted by the Office of Education: "Thirty-six percent of all core programs are found in the seventh grade, 30 percent in the eighth, and 20 percent in the ninth, leaving only 14 percent for grades 10, 11, 12, and ungraded classes."

In this same report, 1,119 core courses were represented by the subject combinations listed on page 24.

Core and Core-type Programs in Actual Practice. In 1950-1951 the Office of Education sent a questionnaire to 519 secondary schools having core-type programs. The purpose was to discover the extent to which these schools actually digress from traditional content. The table on page 26 shows the statements which appear on the questionnaire and the percentage of schools offering each type of program.

A certain amount of doubt surrounds the future of core and core-type programs. Some educators predict that its use will be expanded to all levels of the school system, including the junior college. Others believe that it will and should remain as a characteristic of the junior high school. As a part of the preceding study, the schools were questioned concerning their intention to "change from the type of core they are now using to some other type." Four hundred and thirty-six schools replied to this question. Most of these schools do not plan to change, but when a change is indicated it is in the direction of a more advanced type of core program.

Disintegration of Traditional Subjects. The elementary schools have been freer from outside interference than the secondary schools. As a result many of them have been able to make considerable progress in the reorganization of their curriculums. The movement at this level has been characterized by the grouping of many subjects into large areas.

At the secondary level it is still a question as to the best method of achieving the desired curriculum improvement. Progress can probably best be made on a jagged front for it can only be made when teacher growth in desirable directions is evident. Many attempts are being made to add or create courses that cut across many subject

* Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: An Inquiry into Practices*, p. 6, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1949.

EXTENT TO WHICH 519 SECONDARY SCHOOLS USE FOUR CORE OR CORE-TYPE PROGRAMS

Type of program	Per cent of schools using			
	Exclu- sively	In some classes	In most classes	Total
A. Each subject retains its identity in the core, that is, subjects combined in the core are correlated but not fused. For example, the teaching of American literature may be correlated with the teaching of American history. The group may be taught both subjects by one teacher or each subject by the appropriate subject teacher.	31.6	13.1	8.9	53.6
B. Subject lines are broken down. Subjects included in the core are fused into a unified whole around a central theme, e.g., "Our American Heritage" may be the central theme for a core unifying American history and literature, and possibly art and music	15.6	20.0	7.3	42.9
C. Subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad preplanned problems usually related to a central theme. Problems are based on predetermined areas of pupil needs, both immediate felt needs and needs as society sees them. For example, under the theme, Personal-Social Relations, there may be such problems as school citizenship, understanding myself, getting along with others, how to work effectively in group situations. Members of the class may or may not have a choice from among several problems; they will, however, choose activities within the problems	11.4	17.7	8.7	37.8
D. Subjects are brought in only as needed as in "C" above. There are no predetermined problem areas to be studied. Pupils and teacher are free to select problems upon which they wish to work.	2.7	9.1	1.7	13.5

SOURCE: Grace S. Wright, "Core Curriculum: Why and What?" *School Life*, Vol. 34, No. 5, p. 75, February, 1952.

lines and are based upon significant problems. Problems of democracy is such a course or area in which the topical type of units are frequently built around subjects such as housing, juvenile delinquency, conservation, and labor and unemployment. Biology and home and family living are other examples. In these cases it is necessary to prevent biology from becoming a semester of botany and one of zoology,

or home and family living from being merely cooking and sewing under another name.

As soon as possible it is desirable actually to attempt full-scale curriculum reorganization. This would make a plan of organization in which an area such as home and family living could be evaluated according to the tenets of the following philosophy:⁵

All youth are members of families and a large majority will establish homes. In the later years of high school they generally become concerned with matters which are basic to the establishment of homes. All too often extreme interest in the opposite sex is dismissed as an unfortunate interference with education. This interest really is indicative of a readiness for guidance and help in the basic area of family life. It should be seized upon as an important area of emphasis in the core program.

In the usual high school program a small fraction of the student body receives any instruction relating to family life. Too often only girls are reached and the dominant activities, in spite of major emphasis in the modern theory of home economics to the contrary, are cooking and sewing. The result is that an area of common need is dealt with very inadequately. By including this in the core program an opportunity is afforded to provide all youth certain basic experiences relating to family life. Understanding the importance of the family in our society, sensing problems to be met in effective family relationships, improving the effectiveness of their own family participation, and developing of appropriate attitudes toward the opposite sex, leading toward eventual mate selection and home establishment, are all possible growth areas.

Obstacles to the Development of Core and Core-type Programs. In many ways the obstacles to any type of curriculum reorganization are the same. High on any such list is the factor of security. Teachers, parents, and administrators are naturally inclined to favor the perpetuation of practices in which they feel secure. This is especially true in a school in which an atmosphere of mutual respect does not exist between these three groups. A second obstacle is found in the fact that very few teachers are prepared to direct learning in core or core-type programs. The importance of this obstacle is increased because few professional schools have created places in their curriculums for the preparation of core teachers. In addition, very few administrators, supervisors, or qualified consultants are prepared or

⁵ Hollis L. Caswell (ed.), *The American High School*, pp. 147-148, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946.

available to direct in-service training programs to help remedy this deficiency.

Directing learning in core or core-type programs is more difficult than in the traditional "lesson learning" situations. In order to work together to solve common problems, an environment in which each person respects all the others is essential to the development of positive group action based on the thinking of each individual. A permissive and experimental attitude must always be maintained in a democratic group. Obviously, all these factors are connected with teacher security. The summation of all factors combined makes core teaching more difficult at first, but always more rewarding. Two or more teachers are frequently assigned to the enlarged block of time allotted to programs of this type. The purpose of such assignment is to enrich the learning environment, but almost invariably the class size increases as the number of teachers is increased. As a result, this measure devised to decrease the difficulty encountered in programs of this type may actually increase it.

It is important for the school to maintain excellent public relations during any period of major curriculum change. The public is entitled to know why changes are being made. An uninformed or misinformed public can frequently create enough opposition to block needed curriculum change. On the other hand, a sympathetic and informed public can provide the support and security that is so helpful, as existing curriculums are evaluated and changes are planned.

FACTORS AFFECTING CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

In any school there are types of factors that must be considered as planning for curriculum reorganization proceeds. These factors may assist or hinder any type of reorganization and some of them will be interchangeable with the obstacles to the development of core and core-type programs.

Physical Facilities and Curriculum Reorganization. The physical resources of plant and equipment can appreciably affect curriculum reorganization. Crowded classrooms, a dearth of audio-visual equipment, poor library facilities, and poor transportation facilities are real hindrances to the teacher who desires to plan a program for curriculum improvement.

The American goal of providing a free public education for all youth through the twelfth year of school is certainly commendable,

but it has not been supported by the provision of adequate physical facilities. An advanced position in relation to the importance of the physical environment to the learning process is maintained by Harmon:⁶

If we accept the concept, as most educators do, that the child operates as a totality—that organically he strives to grow, develop and function as an integrated whole inseparable from the environment in which he finds himself—then we must recognize there are, in effect, two teachers in every classroom.

One is the human teacher who plans and implements the child's educational experiences. Present also is a combination of physical forces and forms that set into action the child's basic biological behaviors from which he derives social and personal learnings out of those educational experiences. Each of these teachers is of equal importance to the child's development.

The effective teacher is considered to be a director of learning rather than an uncompromising imparter of selected, limited, and unchanging subject matter. In his role as the director of learning, the teacher's effectiveness will obviously be limited by any factor, physical or otherwise, which detracts his attention away from this important responsibility.

Community Setting and Curriculum Reorganization. It is significant that most modern students of the sociological aspects of various communities begin their deliberations with a description of the "community setting." Curriculum makers should also consider such things as the mineral deposits, population movements, rivers, economic base, transportation, etc., of their communities. All these elements have a distinct influence upon the reorganization of the curriculum. For example, youth who live in close proximity to harbors and air depots servicing transoceanic planes and ships have the opportunity to plan direct experiences that will help them develop an understanding of the role played by rapid transportation in our changing concept of the character of international relations. Youth living in prosperous agricultural areas are more likely to have available the type of school facilities which facilitate curriculum reorganization than youth who live in destitute agricultural regions.

⁶ D. B. Harmon, "Principles and Philosophy of the Coordinated Classroom," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 45, p. 49, March, 1950.

Most schools have not utilized the various factors in their community settings to the best advantage. The mineral or industrial wealth of a community may well affect the ability of the school to support enriched curriculum experiences. The geographical location of the school can have a pronounced effect on the emphasis attached to various types of learning activities.

Human Factors and Curriculum Reorganization. The reorganization of the curriculum in any school will be affected by the size and preparation of the staff and by the educational philosophy which they hold. There is some disagreement about the ideal size for a school staff, but some general agreement that most staffs are too small. The term "staff" means more than teaching personnel. In addition to teachers, it includes such categories of personnel as administrative, supervisory, health, and janitorial. Because the teacher is the director of learning and is frequently expected to assume other types of related responsibilities, it is essential to consider the minimum number of teachers that should be available to offer a program that is in any way adequate. The following statement concerning the minimum number of teachers for a high school is made by Bent and Kronenberg:⁷

A high school employing fewer than twelve teachers cannot be adequately staffed, for this number is required in order to provide adequate administration, supervision, and enough classroom teachers to support a program sufficiently broad and varied to meet individual needs and differences. A school staffed with twelve teachers can enroll 300 or more pupils as easily as fewer and still retain a pupil-teacher ratio of less than 30 to 1, which is near the national average.

It is important to remember that this statement represents the minimum, which means that the ideal is somewhere in advance of this position. The authors of this statement would probably agree that these teachers should have broad certification. One factor that frequently retards curriculum reorganization is the limited certification possessed by the teachers.

At the elementary level the problem of staffing is somewhat different. Most authorities agree that teachers at this level should not be

⁷ By permission from *Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 19-20, by Rudyard K. Bent and Henry H. Kronenberg. Copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

directly assigned more than one grade. It is possible to compute the number of teachers needed for each elementary school as soon as the pupil-teacher ratio, the number of grade levels, and the number of sections at each level have been determined. Most common forms of school organization today include either six or eight grades at the elementary level, and six, three and three, or four grades at the secondary level. The curriculum organization at both the elementary and secondary levels will obviously be affected by the number of school years assigned to each division. The deleterious effects of this arrangement are especially obvious when the articulation between the various divisions is poor. Such deleteriousness is gradually being minimized as educators begin to conceive of education as a continuous process, and pupils are relieved of the series of shocks they once received as they reached one terminal "grade" after another.

Because students at the elementary level are usually assigned to one teacher for an extended period of time, it is extremely important that these teachers be well prepared. However, the studies conducted by Maul furnish the following example: ⁸

In September, 1949, there was a demand for 20,744 elementary teachers in eighteen states, Alaska, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii. The colleges and universities in these same areas trained only 11,391 teachers who were entitled to Standard Certificates and of this number 4,520 or almost 40 percent of the teachers were granted their certificates on the basis of one, two, or three year programs of preparation.

Differentiated programs for teacher preparation must be available to care for the unique needs of each preteaching candidate and of the teaching profession. But it cannot be said that the teacher candidate who is certified after one year of preparation is as well qualified to direct the learning activities of boys and girls as the candidate who has had the advantage of additional years of preparatory experiences.

Services to Students. A distinctive human factor involved in the type of curriculum organization prevalent in any school is reflected in the attitude the teachers hold toward services to students. For example, if the teachers believe that each pupil is a unique individual and that his needs can be met only by planning and closely integrat-

⁸ Ray C. Maul, "Implications of the 1950 National Study of Teacher Supply and Demand," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 1, No. 2, p. 100, June, 1950.

ing⁹ his in-school and out-of-school experiences, then they will welcome the type of curriculum organization that makes the offering of such services possible. On the other hand, if the teachers believe that the function of the school is the development of formal eruditional skills, then their method of curriculum organization will be quite different. Needless to say, the second condition is the antithesis of the democratic concept of education for all American youth.

DEPARTMENTALIZED ORGANIZATION

The departmental type of organization is more prevalent at the secondary than at the elementary level. It is unwise to say that this type of organization is bad until we understand the functions for which the organization is employed. As a general rule, it can be said that any type of organization which prevents the subordination of subject or department lines to the creation of the type of curriculum needed by our youth is certainly not in harmony with the best educational thought of today.

Departmentalization in the Elementary School. In many elementary schools special teachers are employed to teach physical education, music, and art. If the individual teachers disassociate themselves from the work of these special teachers, the curriculum experiences of the children will be fragmented and all the ill effects usually associated with departmentalization will exist.

Elementary and secondary teachers cannot be expected to have the highest degree of competence in all the areas from which curriculum experiences are selected. It must also be remembered that elementary and secondary teachers are not expected to develop their pupils into high-degree specialists. However, elementary and secondary teachers must have an intense interest in all curriculum areas and must cooperate with each other in the selection, direction, and organization of the curriculum in such a way that the education of all pupils is adequate and meaningful.

Some elementary schools desert the idea of the self-contained or one-teacher classroom when the pupils enter the intermediate division. In such instances the departmental lines may become so rigid that it is impossible to break them in order to provide complete,

⁹ Throughout this book "integrate," "integration," and "integrating" are used to refer to the act or possibility of coordinating or relating subject-matter areas or experiences that can supplement or are dependent on each other.

integrated experiences for the children. When this condition occurs, it becomes extremely difficult for teachers to direct effective learning within the framework of the segments of subject matter assigned to them. Fortunately, this condition is found less frequently, and if modern educational thought continues to expand its influence we can look forward to the day when such practices will be nonexistent.

Departmentalization in the Secondary School. Some educational leaders condemn all departmentalization. In exploring the thinking about this subject it is quite easy to come to the conclusion that all curriculums organized along departmental lines should be abolished. This type of organization is not necessarily bad and support could be mustered for maintaining it if three changes could be made.

First, secondary-school teachers need access to modern supervision. Consequently, instead of appointing department heads or chairmen who are semiadministrative officials, these positions should be filled with supervisors trained in the various subject-matter areas. The function of these supervisors would be to provide specialist services for any teacher who needs them. Second, teacher-preparation centers should prepare core or core-type teachers as well as subject-matter specialists. These teachers will direct the curriculum for the core or core-type phases of the total school program. In the administrative organization of the school the work of these teachers might be coordinated by a chairman of the core curriculum. Third, because of the upward extension of the secondary-school age it is necessary to retain and enlarge the various areas of specialization. The teaching of these specialists should be under the direct supervision of the department supervisors. The need for these specialists should grow out of the core or core-type curriculum. All professional relationships between specialist and core teachers should be of the highest caliber.

Growth for teachers and pupils is a continuous process. The curriculum organization in most of our secondary schools needs to be reformed, but the nature of the reform can be no better than the teachers conceive it to be. If curriculum reform is to occur and be based on sound psychological principles of growth and youth needs, it must be a continuous evolutionary rather than a sporadic revolutionary process. Because most secondary schools are organized along departmental lines the logical approach is to redefine the function of the present method of organization. Following redefinition, changes can be proposed and planned on a basis that is acceptable

to all. The end result should be the creation of a prevailing atmosphere of mutual respect and the development of a plan for continuous curriculum evaluation.

SUMMARY

Every curriculum is composed of many interdependent parts, each of which has a special function or relation with respect to the whole. To be effective the teacher must understand the nature of this relationship. To develop this understanding the teacher must be a constant evaluator of society.

A primary function of public education is to help all youth make a better life adjustment. This means that teachers must study human growth and development and must be aware of the types of forces that affect the role a child will assume in society.

Curriculum reorganization has moved quite rapidly in many elementary schools because they have been relatively free from external influences. This same condition has not existed in relation to the secondary schools. The trend in the elementary schools has been toward a unified type of curriculum organization. Curriculum reorganization at the secondary level has been greatly influenced by the development of core and core-type programs. Progress at both levels is continuing and is characterized by an increased emphasis upon pupil problems and analysis of pupil experiences.

There are many factors that hinder all types of curriculum reorganization. These should be carefully evaluated, but they should never be considered insurmountable.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Construct an inventory of important changes in our society that have occurred within the lifetime of the oldest member of the class. How we think about other people, places, or things should be counted as important changes.

2. Organize a panel discussion or debate around the question: Would the mental health and emotional stability of the major portion of our population be improved by attempting to reestablish the more "simplified" type of community life that existed prior to 1875?

3. Identify as many current methods of curriculum organization as possible. Do these various methods have any common characteristics?

4. List the common problems of secondary-school-age youth. Do you think these problems will change within the next ten years?

5. Many educators identify several types of units. What are the common characteristics and the differences between the various types?
6. What place should the textbook, basic reader, etc., occupy in a modern program of elementary education?
7. What kinds of outside interference have hindered the modernization of the secondary-school curriculum? Do you think it would be possible to rid the secondary school of outside interference? Would it be desirable to do so?
8. It is frequently stated that the school community can assist in the creation of a core or core-type curriculum. In what ways can the community assist? How should such assistance be organized and directed?
9. Construct a curriculum to prepare preteaching candidates to direct learning in core and core-type curriculums.
10. What kinds of teacher readiness should be evident before a core or core-type curriculum is introduced? How do you determine a teacher's readiness to move from a traditional to a core or core-type curriculum organization?

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Chapter 3. HOME, CHILD, AND SCHOOL

The positive child growth that occurs at school can be negated to a large extent when home and community experiences do not support it. Growth is a continuous process. If children are to experience the maximum amount of growth each day, the gap that frequently exists between the out-of-school and in-school environments must be closed.

One of the functions of public education is to advance the values held by each school community. In all cases this progress must be in harmony with the rate at which the individuals who compose the school community are capable of progressing. To propose advance based on any other philosophy will only create animosity toward and opposition to the school curriculum. The maximum strength of a democracy cannot be realized as long as teachers and parents merely expect children to conform or be good at school. Child complacency, inefficiency, and erosion, rather than progressive growth, will result from such expectancy.

All persons responsible for curriculum development must assume some responsibility for studying the effect of home conditions upon the behavior of pupils at school. Such study must result in positive action. Also, such study must be of a continuous nature for these conditions will change and these changes will necessitate some type of curriculum alteration. Too frequently, home conditions are not investigated until a pupil is in "trouble," is not being good, at school. When such a policy prevails, the question always arises: Are the schools interested in human salvage or human development? The function of this chapter is to place the emphasis on human development by directing the attention of curriculum makers toward a series of selected facts and generalizations about homes and child development.

HOME CONDITIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

Educators have rightfully spent a great amount of time analyzing the problem of the school housing shortage. They have stated that

the type of educational program desired for our youth cannot be conducted and continually modernized with a bare minimum of school housing and material facilities. Educators have also spent a great amount of time in considering the nature of the environment in which youth spend their out-of-school hours, but they have not adequately emphasized the relationship of this factor to the total educational process. This condition is probably due to the fact that they have considered the correction of unsatisfactory home conditions to be the responsibility of some other professional or lay citizenry group. Obviously, educators cannot be directly responsible for the correction of all conditions that detract from the maintenance of the most efficient educational process. However, as directors of human growth, educators should assume more initiative in coordinating the work of all agencies that are responsible for maintaining optimum conditions for it. This is a reiteration of the recommendation for all community agencies which perform a function affecting the development of human beings to cooperate with each other. Only through such cooperation will all agencies be able to make their maximum contribution to the objectives for education and eliminate undue duplication of effort and resources.

Current census reports reveal two important factors affecting the relationship of the school to the home. First, there is a definite trend toward smaller families and an increase in the number of households. This means that schools which experience no decrease in enrollment will, through the children, eventually have direct contact with more homes. The second factor involves shifts in the total population. A glance at the following table reveals a continued in-

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN MILLIONS

	1940	1950	1960
Total population	132.4	144.7	155.1
Urban	74.8	84.6	92.5
Rural farm	30.4	29.4	28.4
Rural nonfarm	27.2	30.7	34.2

SOURCE: F. J. Dewhurst *et al.*, *America's Needs and Resources*, p. 41, The Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., New York, 1947.

crease in the projected urban and rural nonfarm populations and a decrease in the farm population.

This trend in population mobility creates several types of curriculum questions: (1) Do our schools help boys and girls prepare to make the adjustment from rural to urban or urban to rural environments; (2) what effect will the increasing proportion of older retired people who live in rural nonfarm areas have on the area schools; (3) what part has increased emphasis in outdoor sports, recreation, camping, etc., played in the expansion of the rural nonfarm areas; and (4) if increased money income is the major factor in stimulating migration away from rural areas, can it be said that these people have a balanced set of values for living?

Home Ownership. Homes occupied by their owners now represent 55 per cent of all occupied dwelling units in the United States.¹ In urban areas 48 per cent of the occupied dwelling units were owner occupied while in rural-nonfarm and rural-farm areas about two-thirds were in this category. The percentage of homes occupied by their owners represents a considerable increase over similar figures released in 1940 when the percentages were as follows: United States, 44 per cent; urban areas, 38 per cent; rural-nonfarm areas, 52 per cent; and rural-farm areas, 53 per cent. In the first instance the estimates are based on a sample and are subject to error due to sampling variability.

It is quite easy to derive many important implications for the curriculum from the tendency toward increased home ownership cited above. For example, if the number of dwelling units occupied by their owners continues to increase in proportion to the total number of dwelling units available, will the problem of transiency as it affects the public schools be decreased? Does home ownership tend to increase the amount of security a child receives at home? If home ownership is a desirable feature of our society should the secondary schools include more curriculum experiences designed to enable young married couples to understand how they can accomplish this act more quickly? Should the secondary school include more curriculum experiences of the practical-arts nature that will help homeowners perform many of the simple but expensive tasks of home maintenance? It is financially impossible for many young

¹ *Current Population Reports: Housing*, Series P-70, No. 1, p. 1, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., Oct. 29, 1947.

people to procure a home and furnish it at the same time; therefore, should the secondary school provide curriculum experiences in slip-cover design and construction, the reconditioning of used furniture, etc.? What types of curriculum experiences should be provided to enable young people to maintain their emotional and marital stability when the financing of a new home begins to loom as an insurmountable financial problem? This list of questions could be expanded to great length, but the point is obviously clear that despite the fact that educators may have no direct responsibility for improving housing conditions, the general housing problem contains important direct implications for curriculum makers. This important fact will be further clarified in the following sections.

State of Home Repair and Facilities. To know that a child comes from a home owned by his parents is often not as important as knowing its location, state of repair, and the facilities provided in the home. The Bureau of Census 1947 report on housing reveals the following general information pertinent to this topic: ²

In 1947, about 37,500,000 or 90 percent of the ordinary dwelling units were in good condition or in need of minor repairs, with 93 percent, 89 percent, and 81 percent for urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm respectively. The survey indicated that there were approximately 4,100,000 dwelling units in need of major repairs of which 2,700,000 were in urban and rural-nonfarm areas.

About 9 out of every 10 of the dwelling units in the United States had electric lighting equipment. This type of lighting equipment was provided in about 37,100,000 homes in 1947. As expected, urban homes had the highest percentage, 98 percent, with the corresponding figures for rural-nonfarm being about 90 percent and only 59 percent for rural-farm homes.

The survey indicated that about 2 out of every 3 dwelling units in the nation had all of the following designated facilities: Electric lighting and running water; and flush toilet, bathtub or shower, and installed cooking facilities for exclusive use of the unit's occupants. The highest proportion of dwelling units having all designated facilities was in urban areas, about 83 percent, while the rural-nonfarm and rural-farm areas had 54 percent and 19 percent respectively.

In urban areas homes in poor repair tend to be found in clusters, thus giving rise to districts known as slum and blighted areas. Such

² *Ibid.*, p. 50.

areas definitely represent a recession from normal living standards and as such they are a handicap to the maintenance and progression of the democratic way of life.

In 1931 the report of the President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership described slums as the "abode of half-starved, filthily clothed children, of diseased and crippled individuals; a place of poverty, wretchedness, ignorance, and vice." Obviously, children who live in such areas will be deprived of many opportunities that are considered the birthright of every child. The implications for curriculum construction that surround the schools serving such areas are legion, and it is hardly necessary to mention them at this point. It should be dramatically obvious that any curriculum stressing only the traditional three R's is grossly inadequate to meet the needs of children who come to school from these areas.

The expanded use of all means of rapid communication has de-emphasized the aloneness which once characterized the rural-farm population. But the fact that 83 per cent of urban homes and only 19 per cent of rural-farm homes have all the modern conveniences previously listed intensifies the problem of providing equal opportunities for rural and urban children. The difference in sanitation problems between rural and urban districts may negate the importance of the presence or absence of an item such as a flush toilet. However, it is quite commonly found that if a home is lacking in one major facility it will also be lacking in others. Any curriculum for modern education cannot be adequately conceived unless those who construct it consider carefully all the individual needs of the children they serve.

It is difficult to come to any conclusion relative to the extent to which the school should concern itself with the improvement of the home and community environment of the children it serves. The problem is obviously greater in some school areas than in others. In addition, many communities have established other types of agencies to study and lead in the correction of this problem. By adapting the survey technique used by Cook, which is shown on page 42, it is possible to develop an example of one method for evaluating the school's efficiency for improving the "Home-needs areas" for which it claims some responsibility.

A HOME-NEEDS SURVEY

School's responsibility			Needs to be met	School's efficiency		
None	Part	Entire		High	Low	Average
_____	_____	_____	1. Provision of healthful living conditions for all youth	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	2. Provision of adequate out of school recreational facilities for all youth	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	3. Etc.	_____	_____	_____

SOURCE: By permission from *A Sociological Approach to Education*, p. 301, by Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsyth Cook. Copyright 1950, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

It is not anticipated that the school should assume direct responsibility for all items that might appear under a "Needs to be met" column. It is anticipated that all educators will assume more responsibility for leadership in coordinating the work of all community agencies that directly affect the educational process through the child, his home, or community.

HOME AND SCHOOL

The relationship between adequate home conditions and success at school has been considered by many agencies and individuals. It is an established fact that many children do not have the opportunity at home and school to grow and develop in an environment that is in any way optimum. Frequently the importance of providing such an environment is forgotten. Maximum and minimal environmental standards are not known, but it is recommended that each child have the opportunities incorporated into the following statement:³

To be healthy and happy a child should have a good home and healthful surroundings. He should have a place where he can have fresh air and sunshine and outdoor space to play in. He should be provided with pure drinking water and good, nourishing food. He should live in a house

³ *Your Child from One to Six*, p. 34, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C., 1945.

which has good drainage, heating, and lighting. He should have a room of his own, if possible. If a child must share his room, it should be with another child. He should have a bed of his own.

This statement raises two important questions for which it is impossible to formulate general answers. First, can a child be prepared for a "good start in school" if his first six years are spent in conditions that are the antithesis of the preceding recommendations? Second, if a child cannot be prepared at home for a good start in school, what type of curriculum will help him most in making a satisfactory adjustment? It must also be mentioned that it is possible for children from the "best" homes to be poorly prepared for successful living in school. Educators must accept the challenge to create a curriculum that will help children with varying preschool and out-of-school experiences to solve their individual and group problems.

Usually the child from six to twelve is thought of as an elementary-school pupil. Therefore, it is interesting to study the following paragraphs, also prepared by the Children's Bureau,⁴ pertaining to home conditions for the pupil of this age:

In our thinking and in our planning for children, we should keep in mind two facts: That each child is an individual, and should be treated as one; and that he will always have to live with other individuals, with whose needs and desires he must harmonize his own.

Every child is unique in temperament, intelligence, and physical make-up. He's unlike anyone else in the world, even in his own family, and his home should be the place above all others where his needs, springing from his individual differences, will be sympathetically appreciated. This is the place that can be counted on to understand the slow-moving child, the one who bubbles with laughter at wrong moments, the impulsive one who makes awkward mistakes. Unless each member is dignified by being given this special understanding, the family fails in one of its reasons for being. This cherishing of the qualities that make a child stand out—such as a lovably generous nature, or striking originality—is a function of the home. In the home, too, there is forgiveness for irritable flare-ups caused by strains and tensions endured outside. Here a child is known intimately enough so that his moody silence or his excited chattering is interpreted in terms of what has been happening to him.

⁴ *Your Child from Six to Twelve*, p. 39, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C., 1949.

But just as important as being sympathetically understood is each child's obligation to contribute to the life of his home. He has to learn to be a giver as well as a taker. When a child's parents give him real practice in group living in this small-scale world of his home he will be equipped to fit into the always broadening life he becomes a part of as he grows older.

Children must frequently learn under the pressure of gross iniquities. It is not uncommon to find that inadequate school buildings are located in substandard neighborhoods. When this condition prevails, it is because older and depreciated neighborhoods are the ones that become substandard, and frequently the school buildings in such neighborhoods are of equal drabness and age. This is merely a characteristic of deterioration and is not intended to suggest that all old school buildings possess poor curriculums and that all standard and above-standard communities possess adequate school facilities and good curriculums. However, administrative officials should be aware of the tendency for even the best teachers to become less effective in directing pupil achievement of the objectives for education when surrounded by inadequate school facilities.

National Security and Home Life. It is a parental responsibility to provide each child with the understanding, affection, and security he needs to offset the tensions endured in the out-of-home world. This provision is necessary if each child is to have the opportunity to develop his dignity as an individual. National security will continue to be a problem of paramount importance for some time to come. It will affect the ability of many parents to make the necessary contribution to the lives of their children. It will deprive many children of the opportunity to establish themselves as contributing members of the life of a home. One of the principal reasons for the development of this problem is suggested in the following quotation: ⁶

Production will use woman power. It was the opinion of some members of the panel that this will disrupt many homes. Even though it was generally agreed that there would be less migration of workers than before, it was felt that women workers might move from place to place, particularly when separated from their husbands by the military. Some will follow their men to cantonments and live wherever they can find

⁶ By permission from *The Schools and National Security*, pp. 18, 19, by Charles W. Sanford, Harold C. Hand, and Willard B. Spalding (eds.). Copyright 1951, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

space near them. Migration for whatever reason, will mean moving many small children. Many who have been born in the past decade will be living in poor places.

If fathers and mothers both work, or if the mother works while the father is away, there will be many emotional strains. This will probably be exceedingly difficult for teen-agers who have not yet achieved emotional maturity.

As was mentioned earlier, child care facilities of many kinds will be needed.

The schools cannot be expected to accept all the responsibilities ordinarily assumed by parents. But if youth are really considered to be the nation's most valuable resource the schools must do all in their power to create optimum conditions for child growth. Part of this responsibility might be discharged by helping parents to reconstruct the values they hold in regard to their children.

CHANGING NATURE OF FAMILY LIFE

The directors of any program of public education must continually study society's basic social unit, the family. Without an adequate understanding of the character and changing nature of family life, teachers cannot adequately serve the needs and problems of their school populations.

The tendency for America's population movement to follow a pattern of "country to city and city to suburb" has been previously cited. Several obvious causes have motivated this movement. The basic rural family was dependent on an adequate supply of land on which the young people could settle. As long as the young people were only educated to life on the farm it gradually became necessary for them to move further away from their parental homes or subdivide the parental farm beyond the point of adequate returns in order to remain on the land. When these procedures failed to solve their problems of living many farm youth turned to the city for employment. Distance has tended to weaken kinship bonds, disconsolateness has become a characteristic of those who have chosen to subdivide and resubdivide farms, and those who have been able to make a satisfactory adjustment to the city have attracted an ever larger following.

The movement to the cities, stimulated by the desire for greater income, conveniences, and recreational pursuits of various kinds, en-

countered some snags. Overcrowding soon became a problem and this was accompanied by lack of "fresh air," sanitation problems, loss of play space, and decreased opportunities for outdoor recreational pursuits of many kinds. These conditions stimulated the movement to suburban areas, where many of the advantages of city and rural living can be enjoyed at the same time.

Larger urban industrial areas are quite frequently very weakly integrated. Families from rural areas are usually accustomed to relationships in smaller communities that are highly integrated. As rural families have moved to city areas and as urban families have moved closer to rural communities and suburban areas, the internal bonds and advantages of rural community living and life have become strained.

These movements with their accompanying problems and tensions are problem areas of paramount importance to be studied by those who create curriculums.

Rural Community Changes. Extensive changes in farming methods and the move from subsistence farming to cash crops have brought many modifications to rural life. One of the most obvious changes is the farmer's loss of independence. He must now be a student of market trends, urban industrial unemployment and strikes, and of international events in the far points of the world.

Consolidation as reflected in school jointures and the disintegration of the one-room rural school has broken the old "district" lines. The larger schools to which children are transported on buses are usually better equipped and staffed to provide the type of curriculum children need in a changing world. As the old district lines become less distinct, the small country churches are giving way to the larger town churches. In some respects the tendency for people from rural areas to seek the city for the various types of recreation, amusement, and other conveniences it affords is even more obvious.

As youth move from the parental farm to the city or farms at a greater distance from "home," the isolation that once characterized rural life is broken. Improved roads, telephones, automobiles, airplanes, radios, and television have made almost immeasurable contributions to the breaking of this isolation. People in rural areas can now be actively interested participants in state, national, and international affairs. As the distances between kin are stretched,

there is a tendency to participate as individuals rather than as families in such affairs.

Cooperative action by farmers has increased as the commercialization of farming has expanded. Groups of all kinds interested in cooperative purchasing, marketing, sharing, electrification, and a multitude of various kinds of extension services are very prominent today.

As the distance between farm and city has shrunk, a great many urban and rural people have become part-time farmers. This movement will help to further reduce the isolation that once characterized rural areas and to make even more indistinct the old district lines that once separated rural people.

Many other things could be mentioned such as the tendency to call upon the Federal and state governments for aid, the loss of folk characteristics, and the steady increase in the level of living. All these changes are filled with implications for those who desire to create meaningful curriculums for youth.

Democratic Family Life. Many modifications have occurred in the day-to-day relationships between all family members. At one time father was the superior member in the family, the focal point for all family activities. He planned and directed the work activities of the home, and all family members were expected to help. In this relationship a woman was considered inferior to her husband. Many factors have operated to change this relationship. Gradually, democratic concepts have begun to prevail in most homes, and husbands and wives are now considered partners in the creation of a happy family.

Children are no longer expected to behave like little adults, to eat at "second tables," to leave the room when adult conversation begins, or to work from sunup to sundown. They are now recognized as individuals who have the right to grow and develop—each in his own unique way. Parents and teachers guide this development. Children are encouraged to be participants in family life rather than servants to it.

The demands and desires of personal economics frequently hinder the creation of a happy family. The occupations of many fathers often keep them away from homes for long periods of time or permit them to return home only after they are thoroughly fatigued. This situation creates many tensions and is not conducive to the establishment of companionable relationships at home. Regrettable family situations often develop when father is only the "bread-

winner" and is at no time a counselor, companion, or source of love and affection for the other family members.

Women at Work. A tendency even more significant for family life is that a continually larger percentage of the workers of the nation are women. The greatest single percentage of these women have an average age of twenty. Substantial additional percentages of working women are also found at the average ages of forty and sixty.

It is not difficult to enumerate several reasons for the great increase in the number of women workers. As recently as 1940 over 40 per cent of our population was rural, but the population shift toward urban areas was steady. Upon arriving in urban areas many women found opportunities to work outside the home. For some this was a necessity. The tempo of the war effort kept these women at work and attracted others. When the war was over, many who had become excellent at small-parts assembly, welding, inspecting, riveting, clerking, typing, etc., realized they liked their work and the added income. Many of these women have remained as workers outside the home. In addition, many women have selected careers disassociated with homemaking or have decided to work for a few years before marriage or, if married, before bearing children. Apartments, smaller houses, and laborsaving home appliances have made housework easier, thus freeing women for work outside the home. It is estimated that the number of women in the working force will continue to increase.

To find reasons for the increasing number of women in the out-of-home working force is quite easy. It is a much more difficult matter to anticipate the effects of this increase upon the home life of America and upon the school curriculums.

Dropouts from Slum and Blighted Areas. It is quite common for sociologists to construct their thinking about communities by placing the individuals in five classes. When this arrangement is used, class I includes the top strata of the community and class V the bottom. The people placed in class V, and in some instances class IV, are the individuals usually found in slum and blighted areas. Presumably the general education values which condition the core of the curriculum are intended for all youth. In the light of these statements, it is interesting to study the following table, which Hollingshead constructed as a result of his study of the community involved in *Elmtown's Youth*:

PERCENTAGES OF WITHDRAWNEES IN CLASSES IV AND V WHO COMPLETED A GIVEN GRADE BEFORE DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL

Grade completed	Class IV	Class V
Fifth.....	100.0	100.0
Sixth.....	99.2	97.6
Seventh.....	96.1	78.9
Eighth.....	92.2	57.4
Ninth.....	45.7	23.0
Tenth.....	31.0	14.7
Eleventh.....	12.4	6.4
Eleventh plus.....	3.9	0.0

SOURCE: August B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, p. 332, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949.

The table does not show it, but Hollingshead comments: ⁶

All class III youngsters completed the eighth grade, and 11 of the 12 withdrawnees started to high school. In class IV, 92 per cent completed the eighth grade, but only 46 per cent went on to high school. A similar break appears in class V. Here, however, the first sharp decline of those in school comes between the sixth and seventh grades, when the percentage falls from 98, who complete the sixth, to 79, who finish the seventh grade. A second series of drop-outs comes between the seventh and eighth grades, when the completion figure falls from 79 to 57 per cent. The largest break in class V, as in class IV, comes between the eighth and ninth grades, when the percentage of completions drops from 57 to 23, a difference of 34 percentage points.

The consistent tendency of class V youth to drop out of school at a lower grade level than those in class IV poses a significant problem for all curriculum makers. The problem is intensified by the fact that boys and girls leave school in almost equal numbers until they are sixteen; after this age boys drop out faster than girls.⁷ Do these youth leave school because (1) they are not wanted at school; (2) they receive no encouragement from home; (3) they believe the curriculum is better suited for girls than boys; (4) they are socially dis-

⁶ August B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, p. 332, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949.

⁷ *Ibid.*

criminated against at school; (5) they believe the curriculum will in no way help them adjust to life; (6) they must contribute to the support of their families; (7) they are incapable of profiting by any type of an educational experience; or (8) society considers their education to be less important than that of class I, II, and III youth? The implications of questions such as these are tremendous, and suggested answers for them will be proposed in the chapters which follow.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR INDIVIDUAL PUPIL PROBLEMS

There is great variability in the age at which youth leave school. These people are rarely, if ever, prepared for what lies ahead of them, and part of the responsibility for this lack of preparation must be assumed by the school. A mere reshuffling of subject matter or the addition of new courses will not remedy the defect. In many cases complete curriculum changes must be made in order to help each pupil to make a more successful social and vocational adjustment to out-of-school life or successfully to begin additional preparation at an institution of advanced learning.

Concurring in this point of view Spaulding has established the following six duties which all schools ought to perform systematically:⁸

1. Every school must make it a point to learn as much about its individual pupils as may be necessary for a sound estimate of their abilities and needs.

2. Each secondary school ought to use its information about its pupils as a basis for systematically adapting its teaching to individual pupils' particular needs.

3. Every secondary school ought, moreover, to give its pupils positive educational guidance.

4. Each secondary school ought likewise to give those boys and girls who do not go on to higher institutions direct help in making their first out-of-school adjustments.

5. Every school ought to make a systematic effort to supply wholesome recreational contacts for pupils just out of school.

6. Every school, so far as its resources permit, ought to see that work-opportunities are provided for beginners whose need for jobs cannot be met through normal employment.

⁸ By permission from *High School and Life*, pp. 273-280, by F. T. Spaulding. The Regents' Inquiry. Copyright 1938, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

These duties are important at all grade levels, but the importance of some of them will be intensified as higher grades are reached. However, this excellent statement of duties will remain unimportant until positive action is taken to make them operative.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCHOOL POPULATION

It is impossible to create an adequate curriculum until the teachers understand the basic characteristics of the children to be served. If the teacher does not understand the needs, limitations, and abilities of each child, his ability to plan learning activities that encourage optimum growth and development will be limited. For example, children at the primary level tire easily; seven-year-olds begin to develop concepts of number, time, and distance; ten-year-olds enjoy organized games, many are inveterate collectors, and most are interested in problems of a social nature. Professional teachers seek opportunities to study all aspects of child growth and development for they know each grade contains children who possess some characteristics more common to the children in the grades above and below them. Growth is a continuous process. Educational continuity can only be based upon a thorough understanding of the characteristics of the various phases of growth of those who are served by the school.

Near the beginning of the adolescent period most boys and girls will enter some type of secondary school. During this period they will attain sexual maturity, take a long step along the road toward mental maturity, and attempt to solve problems of an economic, emotional, moral, and social nature. Secondary teachers, no less than elementary teachers, must continually study the nature of human growth and development that occurs during this period and in the periods on either side. Adolescents need astute direction in order to form hypotheses concerning their problems.

Secondary-school youth must be encouraged to think reflectively and should have the opportunity to engage in objective choice making in the formation of hypotheses concerning their problems. They should be helped to develop an understanding of the major areas of human activity and of the heritage of the past from which these activities have sprung. Since the activities of mankind are infinite, these students should have the opportunity to classify and relate them to the events of their environment in order to simplify both. During this period a broad differentiated educational program should be

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established in addition to the core curriculum in order to effectively provide for the unique needs of all. However, basic to all these thoughts is the teachers' adequate understanding of adolescent student characteristics.

SUMMARY

Growth is a continuous process. It goes on in school and out of school. To experience the maximum amount of acceptable, positive growth each day any gap that exists between the philosophy of the home and the school should be closed. Many children do not have the opportunity to grow and develop in a home or school environment that is in any way optimum. Conscientious efforts should be made to make the school an optimum environment for child growth. Educators should also exert more leadership among those agencies directly responsible for assisting in the improvement of home environments.

Home is the place that should be counted upon to understand the child's idiosyncrasies. This understanding should help the child acquire the dignity he needs to develop as a mature democratic citizen. Each child should also realize the importance of his obligation to make a contribution to the life of his home.

Children from blighted and slum areas frequently encounter iniquities at school and in the curriculum. Every effort should be made to erase all such conditions. Such an erasure will aid in strengthening the democratic concept of human dignity.

To create an adequate curriculum the teacher must understand the basic characteristics of the children to be served by it. Each grade in the educational ladder will include pupils with characteristics usually identified with the grades on either side. Consequently, the teacher's understanding of human growth and development must be broad enough to encompass this larger area. The necessity for understanding the characteristics of the student population is just as important at the secondary as at the elementary level.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Construct a chart or outline showing the pupil characteristics most common to each of the first twelve grades. Can you match each of these series of characteristics with the problems that are most common for children at the various grade levels?

2. What means could you employ to evaluate home conditions in your school district? How often would you make such an evaluation?
3. To what extent do you think the school should try to influence the improvement of home conditions?
4. Describe the position you think a city superintendent of schools should take in relation to other community agencies responsible for the maintenance of adequate home conditions.
5. List the educational offerings that should be present in the elementary and secondary schools of a city such as the one described by the Lynds in *Middletown in Transition*. What methods would you employ to determine the type of differentiated curriculum each individual should choose? At what age should differentiated curriculums be available for all youth? To what extent would you permit individuals to shift from one curriculum to another?
6. What types of information does the last census report contain that would help you evaluate your curriculum?
7. Should the schools offer an early-morning and late-afternoon program for the children from families in which both parents work away from home? Should such programs be denied to those children from homes in which only one parent is absent during the day?
8. If the school is going to offer early-morning and late-afternoon programs for the children from families in which both parents work away from home, should such parents pay an extra assessment of some sort for the service? Would it be possible to establish any continuity in such programs? What kinds of activities should be encouraged?
9. If you were a school administrator in an urban area and several rural children were transferred to your school, what steps would you take to help them make an adequate adjustment to the new environment?
10. In what ways are "national security" measures affecting the educational program at your school?
11. If women are going to continue to form a large percentage of our working force do you think more of them should be guided into vocational-education courses? What types of vocational experiences should be offered for them?
12. How would you oppose the erection of social-class barriers between girls in a "welding class" and girls in a college-preparatory curriculum in the same school?

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Chapter 4. ELEMENTARY LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

The educational process is based upon the ability of individuals to communicate with one another. Problems that exist between individuals frequently have their origin in the inability of the individuals to understand one another because of discrepancies in their ability to use language skills. The curriculum of any school must be geared to the level of language attainment of which the pupils who are engaging in the experiences it provides are capable.

Previous considerations devoted to the objectives for education and changing social conditions are especially pertinent to the question of language development. The child who comes to school each day from a home in which there is constant language stimulation in the form of reading, conversation, or reproduction of great stories and music has an enriched opportunity to develop his language skills and his appreciation of the power of language. On the other hand, the pupil who lives in a home unequipped with electricity or in which little reading material is available probably does not receive adequate language stimulation.

THE SOURCE OF LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES

Growth in all curricular areas is based upon the ability to receive and transmit ideas. Unfortunately, many curriculums or curricular areas have become so subdivided that it is virtually impossible for a pupil to develop a complete understanding in any area because he is constantly being stimulated to master or memorize isolated and often unrelated fragments from many areas. This condition does not need to exist at any level in the public educational program because the various areas of general education fall quite naturally into three major divisions. The difference between the curriculum experiences selected from these divisions at any level is basically a matter of intensity rather than of kind. These divisions are presented in the

Harvard report *General Education in a Free Society* in the following manner: ¹

Tradition points to a separation of learning into the three areas of natural science, social studies, and the humanities. The understanding of the natural sciences looks to an understanding of our physical environment, so that we may have a suitable relation to it. The study of the social sciences is intended to produce an understanding of our social environment and of human institutions in general, so that the student may achieve a proper relation to society—not only the local but also the great society, and, by the aid of history, the society of the past and even of the future. Finally, the purpose of the humanities is to enable man to understand man in relation to himself, that is to say, in his inner aspirations and ideals.

The development of understanding in all these areas must begin during the first year in school and is dependent upon a progressively intensified program of language development. The stimulus for this development is to be found in the various areas of learning, although the curriculum which provides the stimulus may at first seem to be very informal. However, the pleasing, informal atmosphere of the modern elementary classroom must be shot through and through with a planned, functional program for language development.

ORAL LANGUAGE

Each pupil brings to school the speech characteristics he has developed as a member of a family and community. The words of which his vocabulary is composed have been added one by one, together with their meanings. This development of words and meanings together must continue throughout his school years, for there is no purpose served by forcing a pupil to utter sounds in the form of words that are meaningless to him. Each pupil must also be encouraged to strive for precise articulation and the presentation of his thoughts in a fluent, well-organized manner. Language skills and thought should develop together, for there is little advantage to be gained in developing fluency and preciseness of expression unless one has ideas to express.

The development of facility with oral language is the pupils' first need at school. It is mandatory that the teacher do all in his power

¹ *General Education in a Free Society*, Report of the Harvard Committee, pp. 58–59, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1946.

to create a social atmosphere in which each child is relieved of all anxiety and fear in the new social group of which he is a part. Each pupil is still quite self-centered and needs much direction to be able to engage in the type of conversation which demands an interchange of ideas. In discussion and sharing periods each child may eagerly await his turn to report some experience or tell a story and then display a seeming disregard for the contributions of other children. During the early years at school the attention span is quite short, and the effective teacher will not attempt to pursue conversational topics beyond limits which the children cannot peaceably endure.

The normal conversation of children also offers many clues to their social developmental needs. The effective teacher will listen attentively to and profitably use expressions like the following in planning social and language, or social-language, developmental experiences for children.

"I don't care what game we suggest, Betty just won't cooperate. I know, let's ask her to suggest a game."

"He always cries when he doesn't get his way."

The child who has been playing with other children walks to the teacher and states: "Nobody ever plays with me."

"Left-handed children aren't as smart as right-handed children. You can tell by the way they talk and write."

"Tomorrow, I'm going to make little noises, you know, cough, fold paper, erase, whenever any of those school-bus children begin to talk."

"I just hate to hear David talk. He's always trying to say words he can't pronounce."

"Don't you think we ought to let the smaller children sit in front?"

"Jimmy hit me just because I wouldn't give him a turn in the swing."

"Why don't we set a certain amount of time that each person can take during the sharing period."

"I like to hear Michael talk. We can hear each word he says."

"I think we ought to make a sign that says NO TALKING and put it in the library corner."

"Joan's stories are always well organized."

"I'd rather tell original stories than repeat those we read in books. We've all read the books."

As indicated in the preceding discussion, the pupil's development of facility with oral language proceeds hand in hand with his develop-

ing social adjustment. Quite often the best indication of the nature of the child's social adjustment will be revealed as he talks with other children. Such talk is best stimulated in an informal atmosphere in which the pupils can learn from each other by having direct face-to-face language experiences. Adequate speech development cannot best occur in situations in which the pupils are seated one behind the other and "taught language lessons." Speech is an expression of the complete individual, and experiences in it can best be created in the workshop type of atmosphere. In this atmosphere oral language development can proceed as an integral part of all learning experiences, and the teacher can unobtrusively direct the acquisition of new words and meanings as the situation or problem calls for them.

Uses for Oral Language. Oral language is the young pupil's medium for communicating with other pupils in all that he does. In the day-to-day living at school oral language is used in the following ways:

Conversing (informally)	Extending social courtesies
Participating in total and divided group projects	Announcements
Plan	Invitations
Discuss	Greetings
Read aloud	Expressions of sympathy
Respond	Expressions of thanks
Report	Telephone experiences
Role playing	Excuses
Puppet shows	Choral reading
Explaining	Speech
Evaluating	Pledging
Directing	

The number or intensity of experiences that each pupil will have with oral language activities depends in many ways upon the teacher. For example, if the teacher insists upon issuing all invitations, making all introductions and announcements, answering all telephone calls, and telling all the stories, the number and type of oral language experiences are decreased for the pupils. On the other hand, if the teacher carefully evaluates each child's oral language and accompanying social-adjustment needs and incorporates each oral-language situation into the program for meeting these needs, the number of possibilities for providing direct experiences in this area will be greatly multiplied.

Correct Usage of Oral Language. The development of correct usage is influenced considerably by the pupil's home and community environment. All teachers are aware of the difficulty encountered in substituting correct for incorrect usage. In all probability the best antidote for incorrect usage in the out-of-school environment is correct usage during the in-school hours. Language is a daylong activity at any school level. All persons who come into contact with the pupils at school should certainly do all they can to help each pupil approximate the highest degree of language proficiency of which he is capable. However, the first task at school is to help each child gain the security he needs for free and confident expression. This can be best accomplished when the emphasis is placed on interesting language experiences rather than making the elimination of errors an end in itself. Interrupting a pupil when he is speaking is usually an ineffective way of correcting errors and it may undermine his confidence and destroy the pleasantness of the situation.

When analysis of errors does begin, the point of greatest importance is probably the effect of the error upon the listener and the frequency with which it occurs. If direct work upon errors takes place, such work should be concentrated upon a small number of errors at one time. There is always reason to commend the teacher who emphasizes the positive approach and develops correct usage by emphasizing and selecting for comment instances in which the language has been used correctly. Thus, a teacher does not establish "a pupil" as one who has used the language incorrectly but cites a continuously broadening pattern of instances in which correct usage has predominated and encourages all pupils to use the correct form.

There is certainly little, if any, excuse for a teacher to detract from the content of a report or story or to destroy the social growth that takes place while delivering it by greedily grasping for some error as if the necessity for finding one were the goal of this learning experience.

It is always important for the teacher to remember that the development of correct usage poses a real problem for all pupils. Children want to express themselves correctly and interestingly. To acquire this competency requires the creation of many opportunities for them to practice accepted forms. It is a long road from helping a child establish himself as a communicating member of a group to the place where he can correctly use the past and perfect tenses of an irregular verb such as "do." Growth in correct usage must be pa-

tiently nourished, and the teacher who is obsessed with the goal of making young pupils conform to adult standards will create disappointing experiences for himself and unpleasant situations for the pupils.

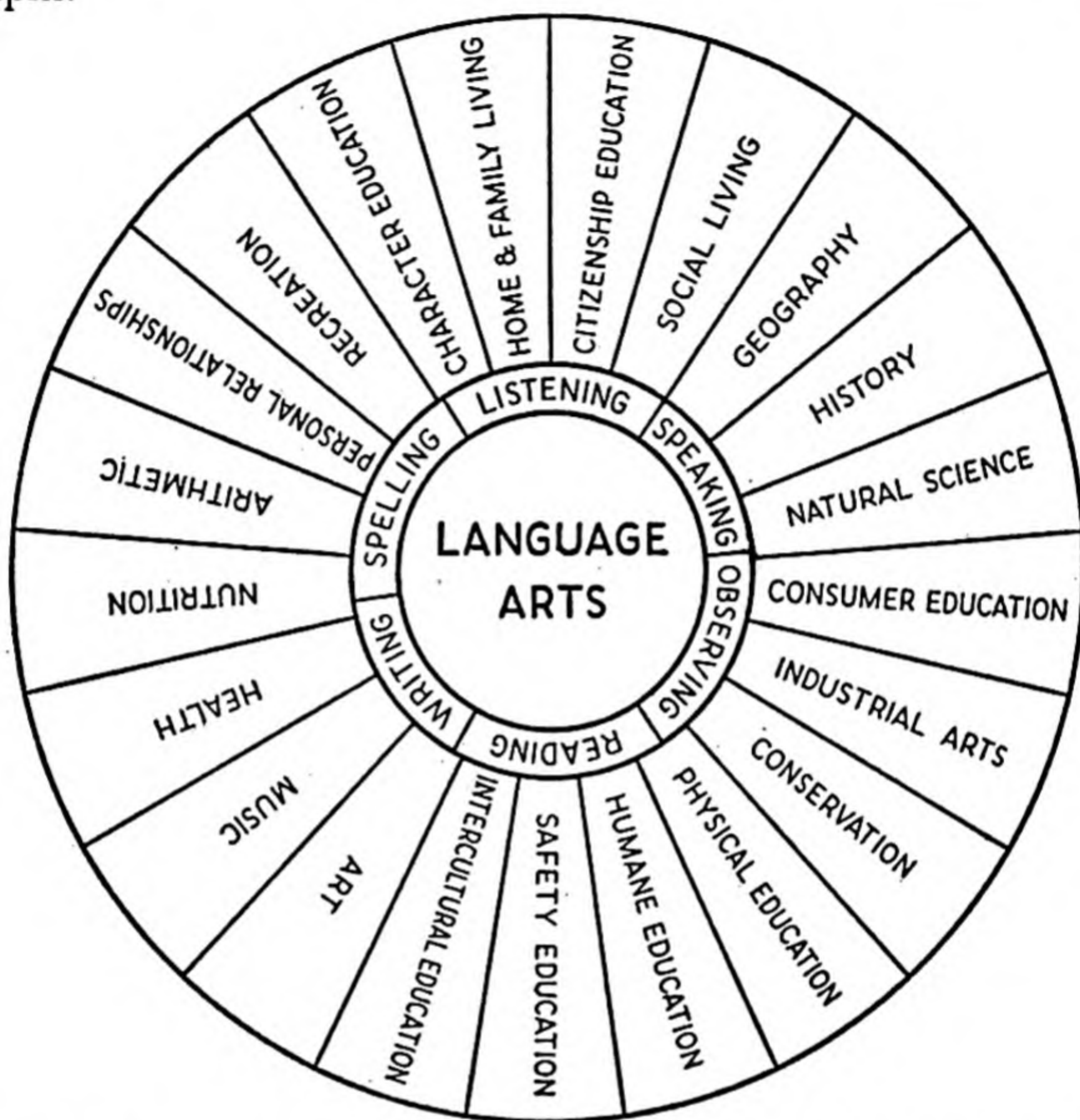


DIAGRAM 2. Listening, speaking, observing, reading, writing, and spelling center the curriculum.

Intensifying Oral-language Experiences. Each pupil lives in a world of spoken language. During the early years in school the emphasis is of necessity placed upon the development of facility in the use of oral language. The development of this facility is not an objective of education but is merely the beginning of a language-arts program whose end purpose must be evaluated in terms of how well it enables the individual to function and perform in terms of all the learning experiences which he will undergo. As indicated in Diagram 2,²

² *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 67, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 233-B, Harrisburg, Pa., 1949.

"listening, speaking, observing, reading, and writing center the curriculum and may be likened to an interweaving network which penetrates and binds all elements together through its channel of communication within and among all phases."

As the pupil passes from the primary to the intermediate division in the organization of the school the interrelationship between all the subdivisions of the language-arts area are more closely integrated. This condition is demanded because of the pupil growth that has occurred and because of the changing character and intensity of the new learning experiences. For example, the new work in social studies can be accomplished most effectively if the pupil can state problems and formulate questions. The ability to do this is, in turn, based upon his developing the ability to read critically and analytically, to employ quantitative and qualitative concepts in his thinking, and to reach conclusions through purposeful discussion. In addition, his experiences of a social nature cannot be separated from the world of science. Thus, if the pupil is to begin to develop a suitable relation to his physical environment, a proper relation to his social environment, and an understanding of himself, "his inner aspirations and ideals," he must be progressively more capable of integrating all language skills in order to be able to cope with the increasing density of the information that is essential to his complete development.

Listening. It has truly been stated that "hearing is not listening, just as seeing is not reading." A pupil can hear a great number of oral symbols but until he can attach meaning to them we cannot say that he listened to them intelligently. The listening world of most pupils has been dramatically extended by the addition of radios and reproduction equipment of various types to many classrooms and homes. Despite the fact that such equipment enlarges and enriches the learning experiences in school and out for so many school pupils, we have not concentrated upon developing standards for listening as we have for speaking and reading.

If it is desirable for our pupils to learn to speak courteously and effectively, and to read critically and for pleasure, then it is surely desirable to develop equally high standards for listening. As pupils progress from one school level to the next, it is increasingly important for them to develop their ability to participate in purposeful discussion. Such participation is based upon thoughtful, courteous

listening just as much as it is based upon thoughtful, courteous speaking. However, despite the obviousness of this truism, it is to be doubted if most teachers spend an equal amount of time on the development of skills related to both of these aspects of communication.

The maintenance of a prosperous, democratic way of life is dependent upon the development of an increasingly higher level of communicative ability among all people. It is impossible to share opinions in an environment in which the listeners are discourteous or the speakers are more effective than the listeners. An inadequate amount of research is available concerning the needs of children and adults in the area of listening. As our concentration upon the language arts has developed listening appears as a subdivision in which we have not been diligent.

READING

The development of the ability to read is stimulated by the young pupil's needs and grows out of his developing facility with other language skills. A mental age of six is usually considered adequate for beginning reading if the program is introduced gradually through normal avenues of interest. If reading ability is developed through a formal drill program the pupil should have attained a mental age of seven or eight. Mental age is not the only factor to be considered in the determination of a pupil's readiness to begin to read. The wise teacher will also consider (1) the general physical condition of the pupil, placing special emphasis on the adequacy of his sensory abilities; (2) the level of social and emotional adjustment the pupil has been able to reach in relation to his group; (3) the type of home and community experiences that are available to the pupil; and (4) the specific types of experiences the pupil has had with reading materials.

To facilitate the assessment of a pupil's readiness for reading, many excellent inventories have been developed. As an example, the inventory on pages 64 and 65 was selected from *The Elementary Course of Study* (page 89). It is significant that the first subdivision of the inventory is concerned with the pupil's "Evidences of Social and Emotional Maturity." The development of adequate maturity in these areas cannot be accomplished by the school alone. Consequently, many teachers emphasize the parents' part in building the pupil's readiness for reading by suggesting types of experiences that

should be provided at home for the young child. An example of such a list is included in *Building for Reading*³ as follows:

What can you do for your child?

Be interested in him by:

Finding things to do together which you both enjoy—picnics, camping, washing the car, singing together, and gardening.

Making meal times happy.

Having quiet, peaceful evenings.

Giving him some responsibility.

Sparing your child your worries.

Directing his radio listening.

Setting a pattern of courtesy, friendliness, and tolerance.

Reading and telling stories.

Listening to and talking with him.

Providing some books of his own.

Expect your child to:

Go to bed at regular hours.

Dress himself.

Recognize his own clothing.

Put his toys and clothing away (be sure he has a place).

Know his name, address, and telephone number.

Cross streets safely.

Listen when you speak.

Amuse himself on occasion.

Play peaceably with other children.

Respond to questions.

Give reasonable obedience.

Encourage your child to:

Look at books.

Listen to records.

Be observant.

Be neat.

Climb and skip.

Speak distinctly and clearly (no baby talk).

Be natural with other adults.

Enjoy being away from you on occasion.

You will be rewarded highly by:

Avoiding the overstressing of his shortcomings.

³ *Building for Reading*, pp. 18-19, School City of Bloomington, Ind., June, 1948.

INVENTORY OF CHILD'S ABILITIES AND NEEDS FOR READING READINESS

	GOOD	FAIR	BELOW AVERAGE
<i>Evidences of Social and Emotional Maturity</i>			
1. Is he happy in the group?			
2. Does he listen to and learn from others?			
3. Does he contribute to the group in ideas and actions?			
4. Does he take only his own fair share of time and attention?			
5. Does he have a reasonable amount of control over his emotions?			
6. Is he willing to persist or try again when disappointed?			
7. Can he work independently at an assigned task?			
8. Does he begin work fairly promptly?			
9. Does he complete assigned tasks?			
10. Does his family encourage independence and initiative?			
<i>Evidences of Breadth of Background of Experience</i>			
1. Has he had the majority of experiences that he will read about?			
2. Has he visited farms, cities, parks, zoos, or airports?			
3. What trips has he been taken on?			
4. Does he know about automobiles, airplanes, trains, and buses?			
5. Does he go to Sunday School?			
6. Has he been to various places within the community?			
7. Does he go on errands to the store?			
8. How comparable is his home situation to the one about which he will read?			
9. What literary background does he have?			
10. What movies does he see?			
11. What radio programs does he listen to?			

Evidences of Mental Maturation

1. Is the child mentally six and one-half years of age?
2. Does he have a normal curiosity about books, things, and places?
3. Does he express curiosity as to the meaning of printed signs, labels, and captions?
4. Does he ask questions?
5. Can he recognize some of the printed signs, labels, or words in the experience stories?
6. Does he have a fairly wide speaking vocabulary?
7. Does he express himself in simple English sentences?
8. Can he tell a personal experience in logical sequence?
9. Can he retell a story in logical sequence?
10. Can he repeat a sentence correctly?
11. Can he repeat from memory a rhyme or jingle?
12. Can he interpret a picture meaningfully?
13. Is he interested in picture books?
14. Can he listen to a story attentively?
15. Does he have a normal span of attention?
16. Does he want to learn to read?

Evidences of Physical Maturation

1. Does he have a normal amount of energy?
2. Is his general health good?
3. Does his vision seem to be normal?
4. Does his hearing seem to be normal?
5. Does he notice likenesses and differences in objects, forms, and colors?
6. Can he detect likenesses and differences in word forms?
7. Can he hear the likenesses and differences in the sounds of words?
8. Does he have the muscular coordination necessary to manipulate pencils, crayons, scissors, and tools?

From *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 89, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 283-B, Harrisburg, Pa., 1949.

Avoiding comparison with other children in the family or neighborhood.

Praising frequently.

Playing up his interests.

Being careful never to humiliate him before others.

Inviting other children to play occasionally.

Helping him to evaluate his behavior honestly.

Helping him to see and meet reality.

Assessing a pupil's readiness to read is an important activity, but it is always well to beware that it does not become an end in itself. A pupil is only ready to read when all phases of his growth have so developed that reading is natural and easy for him. The purpose of any inventory or assessment sheet is merely to aid in the determination of when each pupil reaches this stage of development.

The Development of Reading Ability. From his earliest days when he begins to develop a vocabulary of words and meanings, the young child is beginning to build his readiness for reading. The planned program for introducing the child to reading usually begins during the first or second year in school. Following the introduction of reading, the program is developed systematically but at the same time it is individualized as much as possible. By the end of the intermediate grades each pupil should (1) appreciate literary explorations as a source of inspiration and relaxation; (2) possess competency in the skills necessary for effective oral and silent reading, such as the ability to attack new words independently; (3) possess competency in locating information by using various parts of a book, library aids, encyclopedias, etc.; (4) be able to skim and to read accurately and thoughtfully; (5) raise questions concerning the interpretation and accuracy of that which has been read, and should turn to firsthand experiences for verification when possible; and (6) should possess competency in organizing material in such a way that it can be used meaningfully to solve problems and clarify topics.

The ability to read well is closely associated with the pupil's ability to study well independently. Since the time devoted to independent study is gradually increased as the pupil progresses from one grade level to the next, it is only natural to find that interest in reading problems is growing among secondary-school faculties. This developing interest is based upon the realization that "an effective program of instruction for improving pupils' understanding and

interpretation of facts and ideas requires the cooperation of every teacher in the school. This means that it is the specific responsibility of each classroom teacher to aid pupils to use efficiently the reading-study skills necessary for proficient reading. . . .”⁴ If the attitude toward reading suggested in the preceding sentences predominates in any school, the following seven principles will also prevail: ⁵

1. One of the objectives of classroom teachers is to provide continuous guidance in using the textbooks and references that pupils use in their classes.

2. Effective instruction in vocabulary building contributes (a) to the pupil's understanding of what is read, (b) to growth in expressing ideas in both oral and written form, and (c) to an understanding of ideas presented orally.

3. In vocabulary building, the emphasis should be upon meaning. It is, however, essential that difficulties of mechanics be overcome. Exercises for improving word recognition and pronunciation and for developing a wider meaning vocabulary should be developed by teachers. Instruction in these two phases of vocabulary development will, obviously, be closely related.

4. Guidance in using the skills essential to understanding what is read and studied in different subject-matter fields is the responsibility of each teacher in the school. . . . techniques for recognizing the main ideas, finding details, finding facts, relating subordinate details to main ideas, assembling information, drawing inferences and forming conclusions, remembering what is read, and following oral and written directions may be adapted to the needs of a particular class by any teacher.

5. Pupils should be guided in their reading of books, magazines, and newspapers so that they will develop a critical point of view toward what is read. Ability to form critical judgments of articles in newspapers, magazines, or books is especially necessary for the citizens in a democracy.

6. Pupils should understand the importance of their reading rate, and teachers of the various subject-matter fields should guide pupils in developing a rate of reading suitable to the type of material being read and the purpose for which it is read. Emphasis should always be upon comprehension.

⁴ *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, Vol. 34, No. 168, p. 9, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., February, 1950.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 100-101.

7. Developing more effective study-reading skills is only one of the basic aims of reading instruction, and at no time should the emphasis upon skills be such that interest in reading is killed. Separate specific steps in a reading lesson are suggested. The alert teacher will use a variety of methods to create a desire to read and to develop wide reading interests as well as to develop the ability to use study-reading skills efficiently.

The systematic direction of the development of reading skills offers one of the best illustrations of the need for a continuously intensified program of learning experiences. There is little agreement among secondary-school teachers pertaining to the question of who shall be responsible for the teaching of reading. However, it seems rather clear that in a public school, at either elementary or secondary level, "construction" and "maintenance" should be the responsibility of all teachers, but remedial work should be handled by a specialist. The development of diagnostic reading tests for specific types of subject-matter divisions (science, social studies, etc.) should prove to be very helpful in the formulation of recommendations for all phases of the reading program.

Literature. The pupil who is beginning to read is usually interested in stories that are somewhat identical to the types of experiences he has at home, and school, and on trips. Consequently, what is suitable for the beginning explorer in the field of literature probably depends as much on his interest as on any arbitrary rating assigned to particular books by the teacher. It is highly desirable that the young pupil have a successful first experience with books and that he have enough experiences with them so that he comes to think of them as complementary to all the activities in which he participates.

The open gates of literature can reveal areas of great delight and meaning. The products of other minds and energies offer the child the opportunity to see as others have seen, to feel as others have felt, or to employ the thinking of others to aid in the interpretation of currently important problems. The rhythm of poetry, the fantasy of the storyteller, the information from an encyclopedia, all help the child develop a fuller, richer meaning for life.

In literature the young pupil begins with pictures, stories, and poems that are quite simple and, as he is able, moves to materials that have greater density. But from the beginning each child ought to be striving in his own way to (1) find his proper relationship to the world in which he lives, beginning with his immediate environ-

ment; (2) understand the basic human values which, when rendered, provide life's most satisfactory experiences; (3) experience at least vicariously the multitude of events which other people undergo all the time. It is mandatory that the teacher be well acquainted with the field of literature and sympathetic to the needs of all pupils in order to effectively direct them on the literary road that is commensurate to their ability. The teacher must so love his task that he is thoroughly capable of anticipating stories that should be told, books that should be read, or poems that should be sung, and all at the right time, with the definite purpose of meeting the needs of each pupil.

The question always arises concerning the balance between modern and traditional literature. No definite answer can be formulated, but the problem can probably be solved satisfactorily by using some of both. For example, "Mother Goose" has successfully and spiritedly weathered the test of time with young pupils. However, in spite of her steadfast grip on the imaginations of untold numbers of people, she should be presented and temporized against more modern stories and rhymes.

It has been mentioned before that the density of the literature read by each pupil should be increased as his growth warrants. It is impossible to establish a level that all pupils should reach by the end of the intermediate school years but it is worth while, and undoubtedly indicative, to state the type of literature that is usually recommended for the junior high school. In the junior high school selected classics are still read, but the dissection and analysis of them is gradually being minimized. The emphasis is now upon reading a variety of literature including magazines and newspapers as well as current fiction. It is no longer uncommon to find schools in which complete units of work, and in some cases entire courses, are offered in "magazine reading." This trend does not mean that the so-called classics have become unimportant. It does mean that junior-high-school teachers are realizing that the needs and interests of each group of pupils can more adequately be met by reading a variety of literature representative of both the past and present.

WRITTEN EXPRESSION

The need for writing develops with the growth of ideas one wants to express or has need for expressing. In the past the writing program

has been dominated by the demand to teach correct form in writing rather than to motivating pupils to use writing as a new and effective medium of expression. The need for correct form should not be minimized, but the "rules" which compose form should only be introduced when the pupil has actual need for them. As the pupil develops this need, he will understand the reason for the various rules and will want to apply them to his own written products. Such products represent the pupil's interests and needs rather than the mere fulfillment of the requirements of some demand by the teacher. The motivation to refine writing will always be more objective when it is drawn from the interests and needs of the writer.

There are at least four distinguishable steps in developing the ability to use written expression independently. Beginning with the kindergarten, these steps are particularly obvious during the early school years. As the child progresses through school the teacher will usually concentrate upon a continuous refinement of the various aspects of the fourth step.

1. *Readiness for Using Written Expression.* Two types of readiness must be considered during the first school years. First, the child must develop an appreciation for the uses of writing. He must see writing as a means of recalling and recording pleasurable experiences, of transmitting information, of creating that which is new for him, and of organizing his thinking and his plans. From the beginning, the alert teacher will constantly strive to help children appreciate the many valuable uses for writing. The second type of readiness involves the sensorimotor development that is necessary to print or write letters. It is very important that the child should not be urged to perform sensorimotor tasks that he cannot logically be expected to do. Much caution and careful diagnosis must be employed as the child begins to show evidence that he is ready for writing.

2. *Cooperative Composition.* During this stage of development the teacher writes on the board compositions, reports, and letters that are dictated by the children. For example, the children of "A" school had spent several days visiting different types of farms. During the discussion of their various trips they decided to make a record of the things they had seen and compose letters thanking the farmers. The children dictated to the teacher the ideas to be expressed, and she encouraged the development of good form as she transcribed the material on the board.

3. *Copying from the Board.* This step obviously develops from the preceding one. Having joined with his schoolmates in the composition of a cooperative letter the child now copies the letter from the board to his paper. With the help and direction of the teacher he inserts his own salutation, signature, and one or two sentences to give the letter an appearance of individuality.

4. *Individual Writing.* At this stage in his development the pupil writes independently and with the assistance of the teacher begins to check his own writing for errors in form, compactness in the expression of a single thought, and the development of lines of association between related thoughts. Every incentive should be used to motivate each child to want to write.

As an expressive activity, writing, like speaking, can only be developed in an atmosphere that is conducive to freedom of expression and growth in personal competence and independence. At all levels the concentration must first be upon the content of the written material. Corrections in form must always be made in a positive manner so that pupil growth rather than form remains as the goal of the writing experience. When it is necessary to make corrections in form the teacher should first correct the errors that do most to distort the content. To abusively deface with a "red pencil" each effort to use writing as a form of creative expression or medium for thought organization will contribute little to increasing the pupil's confidence. However, as the pupil progresses from one grade level to the next it would be inconsistent not to expect him to show a growing consistency in his use of acceptable form.

In the development of *A Course of Study in Language: Grades One to Six* Dawson makes the following statement concerning written expression: *

Letter Writing. Research has shown that, throughout life, the writing of letters is the commonest use for written language. Letter writing should, therefore, have an important place in the language program.

Letters are of two general types: (1) the business letter, which for elementary children is usually a letter of request, and (2) the social letter. For both types, content and form are equally important.

In school, there arise many occasions when a letter is needed. At those times, group letters should be composed, and the teacher or a competent

* Mildred A. Dawson, *A Course of Study in Language: Grades One to Six*, pp. 5-6, World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1949.

child should write the letter on the blackboard for study and discussion. To develop correct letter form, there should be many models to study, as well as much guided practice in composing and copying group letters, before children write letters independently.

Reports. The basic standards to be kept in mind in developing the ability to make effective reports, whether oral or written, center around the ideas to be expressed. For this reason, the child must learn the techniques of reading and research that aid him in finding materials; how to appraise and select pertinent facts; and how to make accurate and orderly notes. Furthermore, he should know that he must have a thorough mastery of the facts, ideas, or events to be reported, and that he must organize them well. He must be made aware of the necessity for planning and thinking through what is to be reported. Making a brief outline in preparation for a report should be encouraged. The desire to select the proper vocabulary, to use complete sentences, and to speak simply and directly will be a natural outcome of thorough and organized mastery of ideas to be expressed.

Creative Writing—Prose. The concept of creative writing should be broadened to include not only stories and verse, but also any type of writing in which the creative element, or element of originality, predominates; for example, the friendly letter, the diary, the autobiography, the book review, the dialogue for a play, description, even an original notice or a legend for a picture. An important factor in good original writing is that children shall write about things with which they are familiar and in which they feel an interest.

In considering children's original writing, no one would question that content is more important than form. However, form must also be stressed. Children must not be permitted to practice incorrect writing techniques that they must later unlearn. For this reason, building up on the blackboard group stories, letters, or paragraphs that are later to be copied is a practice to be commended.

In the beginning, children's original stories should be brief. The story-writing techniques built up in the more formal language work should be applied during the creative writing period. Generally the teacher should, if possible, be free to move about the room while her pupils are at work. She can then give guidance to those children who are still quite dependent, and extend her teaching of the particular skills needed while the child is in the process of using them.

Finished stories may sometimes be read aloud, with comments and discussion. They may also be placed on the reading table where other children can read them and talk them over. The writing of material

for a class book or magazine often stimulates more and better creative writing.

Creative Writing—Verse. Much the same process is to be commended as children develop interest in verse writing. Listening to much good verse read aloud by the teacher, and much experience in repeating verse, will in time develop standards of quality. Encouragement, guidance, and practice will do the rest. If there is not too much insistence on strict adherence to rhyme and meter at first, less doggerel and more verse will be produced, and perhaps an occasional line of real poetic merit. Imagery, cadence, and the music of words and phrases should be stressed rather than rhyme and meter. Some verse written by children in the class, as well as verse by other children, may be read aloud. Sometimes it is desirable to write a child's poem on the blackboard (anonymously, of course) and explain why this word or phrase is good, or how that line can be bettered. As pupils develop power to write in rhyme and meter, discuss various rhyme patterns with them; for example, couplet form, and rhyme within the line.

Verse writing should never be imposed on children. Since writing verse is an emotional experience, it cannot be done on assignment. It must be permitted to come from the child spontaneously, even though some children never produce any verse at all. These latter may express their originality in stories and other forms of creative writing. Above all, the teacher herself must have high standards for children's verse.

The preceding statements reemphasize four important factors in the development of written expression: (1) Basic standards in writing must center around the fact that the ideas to be expressed are of primary importance; (2) ideas can be expressed most effectively when they are well organized and the proper vocabulary and sentence structure are used; (3) the development and organization of ideas to be expressed are dependent upon the effective use of other language skills; and (4) encouragement, guidance, and practice are necessary if pupils are to develop proper form. It is important to remember that interesting writing, well composed, usually originates from pupils who are expressing ideas with which they are familiar and in which they feel a real interest.

Many Purposes of Written Expression. The development of the effective use of listening, reading, and oral and written expression should be integrated with the development of vocabulary power, spelling, and handwriting. In the total field of language development it is

impossible to consider any part of the field without paying some attention to all the component parts. This fact is generally accepted when most of the parts are considered but is often neglected in the case of handwriting. Surely the day has passed when teachers expect all pupils to develop manuscript or cursive writing skills at the same time. The days when all pupils were forced to make up, down, and circular strokes in unison upon the command of the teacher are also a part of the past. However, in some circles legibility in relation to these skills has been neglected to the extent that the pupil who can write legibly out of school is considered to be unfashionable. In this, as in all things, balance is to be desired and whether it be legible handwriting or vocabulary power, written expression is one of the best mediums for developing the desired growth in skill.

The written expression of pupils frequently reveals unexpected ability, incidents, and problems that can be utilized for pupil guidance. If pupils are really free to be creative in their written expression, they will often describe pleasurable experiences they have had that can be enjoyed by the entire group. Invariably such contributions will further the teacher's understanding of the pupil involved. Frequently a pupil's writing will reveal the conflicts which he is experiencing, and the teacher will be made aware of some block that has been inhibiting the pupil's learning in other areas. An example of ability being revealed through creative writing is furnished by the following poem written by a fifteen-year-old boy:⁷

KENTUCKY MOUNTAIN GIRL

Clear, etched profile against morning-glory-blue mist.
Hair a sweet waterfall, intangibly fluffy as sun-brightened clouds,
Yellow as the inmost hearts of daisies, or as the fragrance of store-
bought smokes, or as fish swimming near the bottom of a pond.
Voice a smooth harp, a happy-warbling mouth organ.
Eyes dreams of bubbling lives and unreal deaths of joyful meaning.
So was her mother . . . twenty years ago.

In twenty years . . . D'Artagnan killed six men . . . was wounded
three times . . . rose like Alexander . . . fell like Lucifer . . .
and rose again (a flourish) like D'Artagnan.

⁷ Paul Witty (ed.), *The Gifted Child*, p. 253, The American Association for Gifted Children, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1951.

Twenty years ago . . .
Her lover picked her mountain gooseberries
Instead of shocking corn.
A clumsy feather in the winds of fate,
(The Gods cause winds of fate by shouting while discussing the
Meaning of It All)
Obese and solid, heavy with the weight of hastily born children,
Hair the mud-yellow of the baptismal pool after the baptisms . . .
(To cleanse the soul you have to soil the water)
Eyes deadened with the knowledge of her life, brightened only a
little by the certainty
Of a dull heaven.
An ugly thing.
Something a lover of carnal loveliness
Would find an ugly horror, standing beside
The clear young girl, who may be no more pure
And yet is beautiful (what else is needed).
In twenty years . . . Cleopatra wrecked a nation . . . destroyed an
army . . . entwined a couple of Caesars . . . died in a minute
. . . hair a little gray . . .

As the author explains, the wealth of imagery in the poem comes not "from daydreaming or from vocabulary as such, but rather from an unusually varied reading and participation in human affairs."⁸ The experiential background of the pupil in this, as in all cases, will affect and make possible the nature of his written expression.

Many pupils are discouraged when they attempt to write creatively because they fear that all they desire to express has already been expressed. Such pupils should understand that their creative expressions may always incorporate ideas that others have held before them, but that when they interpret these ideas in the light of their own backgrounds they are engaging in an experience that is new for them. The quality of the creativity will vary from pupil to pupil, but all should be encouraged to participate in this type of activity. The democratic way of life is very dependent upon the release of the maximum amount of creative ability that each of its adherents possesses. All pupils will not use written expression to equal advantage creatively. However, one of the most stimulating responsibilities

⁸ *Ibid.*

that can be accepted by schoolteachers is to create a variety of situations broad enough for each pupil to find the medium through which he can most effectively release whatever amount of creative ability he possesses.

SUMMARY

The educational process is based upon the ability of individuals to communicate with one another. From the time when a pupil first enrolls in school until he leaves he must be given the opportunity to participate in a continuous series of learning experiences that are constantly intensified. As indicated in this chapter, his learning experiences that are concerned with general education are drawn from the broad areas of natural science, social studies, and the humanities. The difference between the curriculum experiences selected from these divisions at any level is basically a matter of intensity rather than of kind.

Adequate listening, observing, speaking, reading, and writing skills are basic to the gradual intensification of the curriculum experiences. These skills may be compared to an interweaving network which penetrates and binds all elements of the curriculum together through the channel of communication within and between all phases. Only when the channel of communication within and between all phases is kept wide open, through the development of adequate communication skills, do the pupils have the opportunity to participate in whole integrated learning experiences.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. What is the relationship between the language development of children and the socioeconomic status of their homes?
2. Construct an inventory of experiences and conditions that should be provided at home in order to develop a child's readiness for reading.
3. Explain the methods you use to help children remedy speech deficiencies when no specialist is available.
4. What criteria can be used to select those children who are "gifted" in the language-arts area?
5. Organize a panel discussion around the question: What is the minimum standard of proficiency in the language-arts area that most children should attain by the end of the sixth grade?
6. Dramatic activities are often used to stimulate creative expression through language. How have the various members of your group used such activities to further child growth?

7. Construct an evaluatory outline that will help teachers further their understanding of the grade expectancies of children in the language-arts area.

8. Explain the methods you use to help children become more efficient listeners.

9. Evaluate an anthology of children's literature that you might purchase for use in your school.

10. Discuss the various methods you use to motivate children to make more frequent use of writing as a means of expression.

11. How can a child evaluate his own growth in the use of written language?

12. Plan a unit of work for an intermediate grade based on the question: How can we increase our skill in using the library?

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Chapter 5. ADVANCED LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

The need for language skills follows each person throughout his life. It is impossible for one to maintain himself as a contributing member of any social group unless he is able to use the medium of language effectively enough to express his thoughts in such a way that he can be understood and to understand the thoughts expressed by others. As the level of communicative ability between all people is increased, a higher degree of understanding, with a resultant increase in the harmony that should rightfully exist between all people, can be expected. If this condition is to evolve, the following opportunities must be available to all: (1) All individuals must be assured the right of freedom of expression; (2) free expression must be evaluated, and therefore all individuals must be offered the opportunity to develop their critical judgment to the highest possible degree; (3) to develop critical judgment each individual must have the opportunity to use language in relation to real, live modern problems, and also to study previous forms of language usage as it is revealed through literature and other types of recordings; and (4) each individual must experience language activities in an atmosphere that is conducive to his developing confidence in language usage.

Language programs in modern elementary schools are geared to establishing the conditions which make the preceding opportunities available to all pupils. This is as it should be for two reasons: (1) These conditions parallel the creation of psychologically sound learning situations; and (2) they provide a minimum of necessary language experiences for those who do not continue on into the secondary school.

The language program must be continuous throughout the school years, but the language experiences at each succeeding level must be intensified. Because of the increasing intensity of all curriculum experiences, by the time pupils reach the secondary level the subject

matter from which these experiences are drawn is usually so subdivided that the realization of the need for adequate language development is often forgotten. As a result, English is often considered something apart from history or science when in reality it is the only medium through which most pupils can arrive at any understanding of the problems selected from these areas. In addition, teachers frequently emphasize the importance of the relationship of language development to the ability to engage in independent study and then neglect to determine the level of language development needed or to correct language deficiencies before expecting pupils to study independently. Such unfortunate conditions are indicative of the fact that subject-matter values are often disassociated from the personal growth values that the schools are dedicated to developing.

Fortunately the case for language is a positive one. To keep it positive it is necessary for teachers to reevaluate their attitudes toward those areas in which language is the central theme and to emphasize the importance of language in all areas.

GENERAL TRENDS IN DIRECTING LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

At the secondary level the areas in which language is the central theme are usually designated as English, French, Spanish, German, Russian, etc. There are many similarities in the way that all languages should be taught, but the following discussion is primarily concerned with English. The English area is usually thought to consist of two main divisions, literature and grammar. At one time, many secondary schools established a hard-and-fast line between these two divisions, and it was not uncommon to find "language lessons" rather than "language experiences" in literature and grammar offered on alternate days. During this same period, most secondary schools were offering a curriculum that was almost exclusively college preparatory. The great increase in the size and heterogeneity of the secondary-school population coupled with the rapid social changes that have resulted from the industrialization of society have forced a needed change in this point of view. Today the college-preparatory program is no longer dominant in the secondary school, and the separation between literature and grammar is gradually giving way

to unification. However, it is still convenient to think of literature and grammar as subdivisions of a larger area.

Literature. The place of the classics in the English program is constantly being evaluated with the result that the nature of their contribution is changing. Today the classics are read, but the reading program is being enriched with magazines, current fiction, and current documented literature of all kinds. Students are being encouraged to understand that the study of written material possesses personal benefits for them, and as this understanding develops it is hoped that they will seek these benefits persistently. In a democratic society one cannot be entirely self-seeking. Consequently, in addition to offering personal benefits, literature is being stressed as a medium through which one's understanding of social relationships can be broadened. In addition, through its illumination of the contemporary scene literature assists in the development of a better understanding of the democratic way of life, its history, problems, and future. The modern English teacher is also individualizing his reading program and is taking more cognizance of the need for recognizing, analyzing, and correcting reading deficiencies.

Grammar. As the college-preparatory program ceases to dominate the secondary school, the work in grammar is also becoming more individualized. Belatedly, English teachers are realizing that the mere memorization of rules of grammar does not ensure their use. Consequently, the secondary teachers are joining with elementary teachers in programs designed to offer many practical experiences in oral and written grammar built around ideas that are socially significant and meaningful to the students.

It is useless to attempt to separate composition from grammar. When the two are combined as they should be, the following three trends in written composition, begun in the elementary school, are continued and expanded at the secondary level.¹

1. *Letter Writing.* The writing of letters, business and social, remains as the commonest use for written language. In addition, the students now learn the feasibility and methods of using telegrams, night letters, order forms, and application blanks.

2. *Reports.* The ideas to be expressed in the report, whether written or oral, continue to occupy the position of central importance.

¹ Refer to the previous discussion of writing beginning on p. 69.

The students are encouraged to express their ideas in a clear, orderly, and balanced manner. The emphasis on research as a method of mobilizing accurate information is continued. When the student has learned to express a single idea in one paragraph, he should be helped to express several related ideas in a series of consecutive paragraphs. Throughout, the student should be encouraged to retain the unity of the whole thought that is being expressed.

3. *Creative Writing—Prose and Verse.* Students should be encouraged to write about things with which they are familiar and in which they feel an interest. Originality is important, but the correct forms which were introduced in the elementary school should be continued and enlarged upon at the secondary level. Creative writing provides the teacher with an excellent means of encouraging the student to evaluate and tap his personal resources.

A well-balanced sequential program for language development can be planned only if the students' needs and level of attainment are continuously evaluated. Such evaluation and planning are also dependent upon each teacher developing a workable knowledge of the language needs of children at various growth levels and the usual grade placement of language skills.

Basic Aims for English Instruction. In 1942 the Basic Aims Committee of the National Council of the Teachers of English established the following thirteen aims for the teaching of English.² As these aims are studied, the trends that are beginning to dominate the English program become increasingly clear.

BASIC AIMS FOR ENGLISH INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

1. Language is a basic instrument in the maintenance of the democratic way of life.
2. Increasingly free and effective interchange of ideas is vital to life in a democracy.
3. Language study in the schools must be based on the language needs of living.
4. Language ability expands with the individual's experience.
5. English enriches personal living and deepens understanding of social relationships.

² "Basic Aims for English Instruction in American Schools," *The English Journal*, Vol. 31, No. 1, pp. 40-55, University of Chicago Press, January, 1942.

6. English uses literature of both past and present to illumine the contemporary scene.
7. Among the nations represented in the program in literature, America should receive major emphasis.
8. A study of the motion picture and radio (and television) is indispensable in the English program.
9. The goals of instruction in English are, in the main, the same for all young people, but the heights to be attained in achieving any one of them and the materials used for the purpose will vary with individual need.
10. The development of social understanding through literature requires reading materials within the comprehension, the social intelligence, and the emotional range of the pupils whose lives they are expected to influence.
11. English pervades the life and work of the school.
12. English enriches personality by providing experience of intrinsic worth for the individual.
13. Teachers with specialized training are needed for effective instruction in the language arts.

When phrases such as "maintenance of the democratic way of life," "the language needs of living," "to illumine the contemporary scene," "the development of social understanding," etc., are considered it becomes increasingly easy to understand that these teachers are now striving for something broader and more basic than pure erudition as such. The teacher who directs the learning of pupils in such a way that these aims are achieved will, indeed, be developing the type of human understanding for which men have yearned for so long.

Other Languages. A great amount of controversy has always surrounded the question of how much foreign language to include in the secondary-school curriculum. Quite frequently one hears the remark that many pupils from foreign countries speak two or three languages but that pupils in American schools seldom speak more than one. This remark is quite true, but it must be tempered by the following truths: (1) The secondary-school population in America is much more heterogeneous than the secondary-school population in any other country; and (2) only in the extreme Southwestern part of the United States does one encounter people continually using a language other than English. These truths make the problem of

teaching foreign languages different in America than in any of the European countries.

Despite the somewhat negative approach set forth in the preceding paragraph, there are some positive discernible trends in the teaching and probable expansion of foreign-language instruction. First, rapid methods of transportation are gradually making all people "next-door neighbors" with the result that interest in languages other than English is increasing. Second, as more teachers of foreign languages employ the "direct method" and "reading method" of instruction, interest can be expected to increase. Third, the full possibilities of "general language" have not yet been explored, and it is fair to assume that such exploration may eventually stimulate many pupils to study languages other than English.

LITERATURE

Trends are only valuable in so far as they indicate the direction that should be taken in the development of learning activities for pupils. English is an exceedingly broad area, and in order to develop examples that illustrate the nature of trends it is all but necessary to divide the area into its logical parts. When doing this it is necessary to guard against the danger of again falsely assuming that each part is an end in itself and thus deprive pupils of the more desirable types of integrated learnings.

Contemporary Literature. The basic aims set forth for English include the recommendation that literature of both the past and present be used to illumine the contemporary scene. Literature can also be used as background material to help youth develop their social understanding. Such literature must obviously be "within the comprehension, the social intelligence, and the emotional range of the lives it is expected to influence."

The problem of finding materials that meet the requirements established by the basic aims is not difficult. For example, *Hiroshima*, by John Hersey,³ is an excellent contemporary literary selection. The text of this small book has been reported in periodicals and through the vast resources of radio. The story deals with the lives of six human beings who lived through the disaster created by the dropping of the first atom bomb on an inhabited city. The characters

³ John Hersey, *Hiroshima*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1946.

represent many walks of life. This is rightly so because the entire development of what is commonly referred to as "atomic energy" is certainly filled with all sorts of positive and negative sociological implications for all people. Consider the discussion possibilities in questions such as the following which can be developed within the setting of materials like *Hiroshima*: (1) If men are to create in the field of science, to develop the resources of the atom, who must assume the social responsibility for the management of such creations? (2) How can these creations be used for the advancement of all people? Secondary pupils are only a step away from the assumption of the responsibilities of citizens in the management of their country. These are certainly types of questions they should consider under the direction of competent teachers.

Contemporary literature takes many forms so it is well to use a second example. The script which Pare Lorentz wrote for *The River*⁴ can certainly be used to stimulate pupils to read in the whole field of literature that centers around the development of the great American Middle West. When this excellent sound track is studied, in conjunction with the showing of the film, the social impact of the blessings or the tragedies that can be derived from living in one of the greatest river valleys of the world are forcefully brought home. The sense for the poetic is aptly illustrated in these lines from the script:

From as far West as Idaho,

Down from the glacier peaks of the Rockies—

From as far East as New York,

Down from the turkey ridges of the Alleghenies,

Down from Minnesota, twenty-five hundred miles,

The Mississippi runs to the Gulf.

Carrying every drop of water that flows down two-thirds the continent,

Carrying every brook and rill, rivulet and creek,

Carrying all the rivers that run down two-thirds the continent,

The Mississippi runs to the Gulf of Mexico.

Down the Yellowstone, the Milk, the White and Cheyenne;

The Cannonball, the Musselshell, the James and the Sioux;

Down the Judith, the Grand, the Osage, and the Platte,

The Skunk, the Salt, the Black, and Minnesota;

⁴ Pare Lorentz, *The River*, used by permission of the author.

Down the Rock, the Illinois, and the Kankakee,
The Allegheny, the Monongahela, Kanawa, and Muskingum;
Down the Miami, the Wabash, the Licking and the Green,
The Cumberland, the Kentucky, and the Tennessee;
Down the Ouchita, the Wichita, the Red, and Yazoo—
Down the Missouri three thousand miles from the Rockies;
Down the Ohio a thousand miles from the Alleghenies;
Down the Arkansas fifteen hundred miles from the Great Divide;
Down the Red a thousand miles from Texas;
Down the great Valley, twenty-five hundred miles from Minnesota,
Carrying every rivulet and brook, creek and rill,
Carrying all the rivers that run down two-thirds the continent—
The Mississippi runs to the Gulf.

It takes little imagination to move from the river names poetically expressed in these lines to associations that will stand with them forever. For example, consider the possibilities of employing mathematics as a way of thinking when we recall statements such as "From as far East as New York . . . Down from Minnesota, twenty-five hundred miles . . . Down the Arkansas fifteen hundred miles from the Great Divide; Down the Red a thousand miles from Texas." It is fascinating to consider the placement of these rivers, the implications they hold for the people who live in the territory served or damaged by them, or to consider the relationship of the Alleghenies to the Rockies from the standpoint of distance involved or importance as sources of rivulets that become rivers.

Many teachers who are concerned with the teaching of literature will not desire to consider the mathematical or geographical experiences that can be drawn from literature such as this. Consequently, it is advisable to cite another method of using the stimulation contained in these lines by Pare Lorentz. "Down the Yellowstone, the Milk, the White and Cheyenne; the Cannonball, the Musselshell, the James and the Sioux." Who named these rivers? Who are the Sioux—the wild-riding, relentless, implacable Sioux who have grown into legend that inspires the spirit of adventure into youth across the breadth of our nation? It is impossible to think of Indian tribes such as the Sioux without recalling the Battle of the Little Big Horn and all that it meant to the development of the West. But, again, one cannot think of such things as the Battle of the Little Big Horn

without thinking of frontier posts such as Fort Laramie, referred to in another type of contemporary literature by Hamilton Basso:⁵

It would be hard to think of any one place that bulks more dramatically in our history than Fort Laramie. Indians, fur trappers, the hell-for-leather boys of the Pony Express, stage coach drivers, Forty-Niners, Brigham Young and his followers, gamblers, traders, prospectors, home-seekers, cowpunchers who brought in the first herds of cattle—Fort Laramie knew and sheltered them all.

Out of the type of turbulence suggested in this paragraph the United States has arisen as a nation. The aims for English contain the recommendation that the literature of America be emphasized. In order to follow the development of this trend it is certainly desirable to employ contemporary material such as that produced by John Hersey, Pare Lorentz, and Hamilton Basso for the following reasons: (1) Literature of this type dramatically portrays many of the problems, past and present, that have hindered our developing the highest type of human relationships; (2) because it is current and alive, this literature provides all the necessary motivation for integrating materials from many sources into whole or complete, socially meaningful learning activities; and (3) active, curious secondary-school pupils are stimulated by material of this type to enrich their understanding of the American heritage.

Literature of the Past. The Basic Aims for English recommend that literature of both the past and present should be used "to illumine the contemporary scene." The concentration up to this point has been upon selections from contemporary literature. This literature incorporates the patterns of the past into its present form in order to develop what might be called the American heritage. It also helps pupils broaden their understanding of existing social problems by tracing them to their immediate origin. The interesting part about the origin of such problems is that they are created through the improper relationships of man to man and of man to his environment. In other words, the problem of yesterday and today is basically a problem of human relationships. This problem is emphasized today because the results of rapid industrialization and released creativity have thrown men closer together and made them realize their interdependency.

⁵ Hamilton Basso, "Wyoming," *Holiday*, Vol. 10, No. 2, p. 63, August, 1951.

The questions that always arise at this point are (1) How much literature from the past shall be used? (2) What literature from the past shall be used? and (3) Since many types of literature must be used in order to provide a pattern of reading broad enough to fulfill the requirements of the basic aims, what criterion shall be followed in making selections? There is, of course, no easy answer to these questions but there is a basic philosophy that should guide all teachers who seek for answers to them. Secondary-school pupils are alive and are primarily concerned with problems of living. Therefore, these pupils should not be subjected to a series of repetitive, dull, and unmeaningful "lessons" about dead authors, dead masterpieces, dead ages, and probably equally deadening criticisms about all of these things. The democratic culture is a living reality. Secondary pupils should understand the past in order to stabilize their thinking about the progress of today and tomorrow but they must understand it in the light of living interpretations. These interpretations must be developed by the pupils with due cognizance taken of the experiential background of each pupil. This development must be directed by a teacher whose literary background is so thorough that he can help the pupil select at the right moment that piece of literature which can be used to solve a pupil problem related to the primary values of living in a democratic society. When literary experiences are directed in this manner, literature can assume a vitality that is peculiar to it alone. It is obviously impossible to direct learning experiences of this type without well-qualified teachers and adequate resources. But the time must come when both the teachers and the resources will be available or else all the "American Dreams" that are considered desirable for our youth will degenerate into sheer mockery.

It is not difficult to find examples from literature produced in other days that can be made real and applicable for students of today. The difficult task is to retain the virility of the ideas for discussion purposes, and not to lose one's self in the intricacies of the language used to express these ideas. Writers commonly turn to the areas of drama or poetry for such examples. These areas are unquestionably important, but for pupils faced with the problems of living in the modern world it seems equally important to consider the literature of political science. The study of this type of literature can help immeasurably in the development of a more adequate understand-

ing of democratic concepts, the concepts that concern the human relationships between men and the relationships between free men and their government. The following paragraph from *The Federalist* is illustrative of this point: ⁶

After an unequivocal experience of the inefficiency of the subsisting federal government, you are called upon to deliberate on a new Constitution for the United States of America. The subject speaks its own importance; comprehending in its consequences nothing less than the existence of the UNION, the safety and welfare of the parts of which it is composed, the fate of an empire in many respects the most interesting in the world. It has been frequently remarked that it seems to have been reserved to the people of this country by their conduct and example, to decide the important question, whether societies of men are really capable or not of establishing good government from reflection and choice, or whether they are forever destined to depend for their political constitutions on accident and force. If there be any truth in the remark, the crisis at which we are arrived may with propriety be regarded as the era in which that decision is to be made; and a wrong election of the part we shall act may, in this view, deserve to be considered as the general misfortune of mankind.

These lines written in support of a "Constitution for the United States" are as applicable today as they were during the period in which they were originally composed. It is a prime function of the public schools in the United States to so prepare our youth that the right will always be reserved for them "by their conduct and example, to decide the important question, whether societies of men are really capable or not of establishing good government from reflection and choice, or whether they are forever destined to depend for their political constitutions on accident and force." ⁷ When students begin to understand that their government must be maintained through "reflection and choice" and that it *derives* its just powers from the consent of the governed, they should begin to appreciate the importance and virility of this type of literature to the maintenance of all things that are held to be dear by their society.

⁶ Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, James Madison, *The Federalist*, No. 1, p. 3, Modern Library, Inc., New York, 1937.

⁷ *Ibid.*

Obviously, there are many who will recognize *The Federalist* as great literature but will say that it belongs in the "social studies department." Unfortunately, the assignment of specific items to specific departments, desirable and necessary as it might be in some instances, is one of the major obstacles to the development of more meaningful learning activities.

The preceding discussion has indicated that a major function of the public schools in a democracy is to prepare youth to make intelligent, reflective choices. This purpose can be accomplished through the study of some traditionally accepted literature as well as through the study of the type of literature represented by *The Federalist*. For example, the following passages from *Julius Caesar* can be used to accomplish this purpose:

BRUTUS: Be patient till the last.

Romans, countrymen, and lovers! hear me for my cause, and be silent, that you may hear; believe me for mine honour, and have respect to mine honour, that you may believe; censure me in your wisdom, and awake your senses, that you may the better judge. If there be any in this assembly, any dear friend of Caesar's, to him I say that Brutus' love to Caesar was no less than his. If then that friend demand why Brutus rose against Caesar, this is my answer: not that I loved Caesar less, but that I loved Rome more. Had you rather Caesar were living, and die all slaves, than that Caesar were dead, to live all freemen? As Caesar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honour him; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. There is tears for his love; joy for his fortune; honour for his valour; and death for his ambition. Who is here so base that would be a bondman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so vile that will not love his country? If any, speak; for him have I offended. I pause for a reply.

ALL: None, Brutus, none.

BRUTUS: Then none have I offended. I have done no more to Caesar than you shall do to Brutus. The question of his death is enrolled in the Capitol; his glory not extenuated, wherein he was worthy, nor his offences enforced, for which he suffered death. (*Enter Antony and others, with Caesar's body.*) Here comes his body, mourned by Mark Antony: who, though he had no hand in his death, shall receive the benefit of his dying, a place in the commonwealth; as which of you shall not? With this I depart,—that, as I slew my best

lover for the good of Rome, I have the same dagger for myself, when it shall please my country to need my death.

ALL: Live, Brutus! live, live!

FIRST CITIZEN: Bring him with triumph home unto his house.

SECOND CITIZEN: Give him a statue with his ancestors.

THIRD CITIZEN: Let him be Caesar.

FOURTH CITIZEN: Caesar's better parts
Shall be crown'd in Brutus.

FIRST CITIZEN: We'll bring him to his house with shouts and clamours.

Following the speech by Brutus and the exclamations of allegiance to him we recall that Antony enters, and from that dialogue the following passage is worthy of consideration:

ANTONY: Good friends, sweet friends, let me not stir you up
To such a sudden flood of mutiny.

They that have done this deed are honourable;

What private griefs they have, alas, I know not,

That made them do it: they are wise and honourable.

And will, no doubt, with reasons answer you.

I come not, friends, to steal away your hearts:

I am no orator, as Brutus is;

But, as you know me all, a plain blunt man,

That love my friend; and that they know full well

That gave me public leave to speak of him:

For I have neither wit, nor words, nor worth,

Action, nor utterance, nor the power of speech,

To stir men's blood: I only speak right on;

I tell you that which you yourselves do know;

Show you sweet Caesar's wounds, poor poor dumb mouths,

And bid them speak for me: but were I Brutus,

And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony

Would ruffle up your spirits, and put a tongue

In every wound of Caesar, that should move

The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny.

ALL: We'll mutiny.

FIRST CITIZEN: We'll burn the house of Brutus.

THIRD CITIZEN: Away, then! come, seek the conspirators.

In these lines one encounters the danger of becoming lost in the beautiful language that contains the ideas from which our experience in considering the necessity of making intelligent choices is to be drawn. Here is an excellent example of the manner in which

effective language usage can stimulate "citizens" to make decisions strictly on an emotional basis without due regard to the reflections that should precede their choice making. In other words, it is the function of each learning activity to serve as many primary values as possible and it is implied that few, if any, primary human values can be served by literature if the development of an appreciation for the beauty of the language is the only end.

Literature for the Slow Learner. To pursue this discussion of literature to a logical conclusion it is necessary to recognize that the preceding examples represent reading material that is too advanced for many pupils in today's heterogeneous school population. In *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, February, 1951,⁸ the following statements are made concerning the selection of books for the slow learner:

A wide variety of books should be provided for the slow-learner, but instruction in reading should not be confined to the extensive use of commercially prepared materials. The teacher should also use "experience lessons" as outlined in Section II of this publication. The Committee believes that a liberal use of these lessons for those pupils whose reading achievement is far below their capacity will result in more rapid growth than would the exclusive use of books.

When slow-learners have overcome their reluctance or their extreme sense of inability to learn to read, many books must be supplied for their use. The selection must contain many easy books and those that appeal to all possible individual interests of the pupils.

The Committee, in a former bulletin (*Improving Reading Instruction in the Secondary Schools*, California State Department of Education, Vol. XVI, No. 1, May, 1947) set up three criteria on which to base their recommendation of books for poor readers.

1. Their content must be more advanced than their vocabulary and sentence structure.
2. They must have been used successfully with retarded and reluctant readers.
3. They must be of acceptable literary quality.

⁸ "Reading Instruction for the Slow Learner in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, Vol. 35, No. 176, p. 40, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., February, 1951.

A wide variety of books of acceptable literary quality with content more advanced than their vocabulary and sentence structure may not be easy to procure. This is especially true if reading material that is designed to serve some function other than busy work is selected. However, this problem must and can be solved if those responsible for selecting reading materials will be diligent in their evaluations.

In the preceding section *The Federalist* was considered as a medium for developing an appreciation of the privileges and obligations of citizens in a democratic society. Some secondary-school pupils will not be able to cope with the language used in *The Federalist*. These pupils will be able to develop a workable approximation of the same understandings and appreciations from materials of the following type: ⁹

In 1936, 1,200 of the 1,900 daily newspapers of the United States editorially opposed the re-election of the nominee for President who won in all but two states. All these newspapers printed the speeches and the statements of this nominee and news about his campaign. But the editors were free to oppose him and his party. Yet not one case is recorded of any newspaper being suppressed or prosecuted for its position in that election.

The fact that 1,200 critical newspapers were not molested by the victor in the contest does not mean merely that one man or one party refrained from retaliation against opponents. It means much more. That record of freedom was based upon a national state of mind—the popular support of a principle written into the American Constitution.

Now let us see "how we got that way." What great struggles down through the ages won for us this principle of free press. Let us see. . . .

This material is certainly of acceptable literary quality and is aimed at the freedoms which shoot through and through the primary values of a democracy. In any case, the mandate always remains the same. The teacher who wants to use literature as a part of a learning activity must be able to select those books needed to solve the problems of any group or individual when the need arises.

In its broadest sense literature includes all writing; hence those who select it as a part of a learning activity have the written record of mankind as their resource. The problem is to select wisely from

⁹ Chester S. Williams, *Liberty of the Press*, pp. 7-8, Row, Peterson & Company, Evanston, Ill., 1940.

the resource in order to more adequately meet the needs of living pupils.

WRITING

The value of writing as a learning activity remains as a very debatable topic. When the college-preparatory program completely dominated the secondary schools, it was quite customary to subject all pupils to a stereotyped series of *language lessons* that were based upon the inaccurate notion that the mere memorization of a series of rules pertaining to writing would ensure their use. Today, teachers at all levels are joining together in an attempt to improve written language usage by stimulating all pupils to participate in a great number of written *language experiences* that are socially significant and meaningful to them.

Earlier in this chapter, reference was made to letter writing, report writing, and creative writing—prose and verse. In the preceding chapter, reference was made to Dawson's statement to the effect that "throughout life, the writing of letters is the commonest use for written language." This being true it is imperative that first consideration be given to this type of writing.

Letter Writing. Letters are of two general types: (1) the social letter, and (2) the business letter. For many years, teachers have attempted to stimulate pupils to establish a correct form and to follow "rules of grammar" in composing social letters. As a means of stimulation they have assigned projects in "social letter writing" of which the following description is not uncharacteristic.

At 9:20 on a Friday morning in November the pupils were told to write a "social letter" to some person whom they really liked, to use correct English, and to follow the rules for social-letter writing that had been given to the class. Following a series of relevant and irrelevant questions, the English period ended and the pupils left the room charged with the responsibility of bringing their letters to class on Monday. During the course of the week end a series of interesting things occurred, including the season's first big snowfall. When the class assembled the following Monday the pupils were requested, one by one, to come before the class and read their letters. Almost all the letters were about the snowfall, all were stilted, and each one was dissected for errors. As the class grew restless under the yoke of this monotonous routine, the teacher, in exasperation, said, "Joe, is that the sort of letter you would write to a close friend?" With face

flushed, Joe replied, "No, I wrote this letter for you, but yesterday I wrote a note to my cousin."

Several things were of sufficient detracting force to make the preceding lesson almost unmeaningful: (1) The pupils were obviously aware of the fact that they would be required to read their letters before the class and, as a result, they would not write personal letters; (2) the pupils were aware of the additional fact that their letters would be openly criticized; therefore, "correct form and usage" became an end in itself; (3) the teacher had not learned that in writing, as in speaking, expression is best when the pupils are encouraged to select experiences that are meaningful to them and to express them through the medium they use most effectively. It is ridiculous to assume that all pupils would have the desire to write a social letter during the course of the same week end. It is not the intent of this discussion to deemphasize the desirability of using correct form. However, the emphasis is shifting from the drill type of "grammatical rule" assignment to the place where correct usage is being taught largely by frequent repetition of accepted forms of English construction.

Business letters should meet certain requirements but they, too, should concern topics of direct interest to the pupils. Such topics are to be found in (1) the types of hobbies that require pupils to order stamps, model airplane, or train parts, etc.; (2) projects that grow out of class or club activities such as ordering feed or equipment to complete a vocational agricultural project or to obtain the directions for submitting a Four-H club project for display at a state fair; (3) the types of letters of application that pupils must write for summer or part-time employment; (4) the types of letters pupils must write in order to obtain specific information for a social-studies discussion or to obtain the services of an outside consultant; (5) the types of letters that must be written to order merchandise from a mail-order concern, etc. In all probability all commercial establishments will attempt to fulfill the requests of all letters regardless of the form they take. The importance of effective communication should be recognized, and pupils should have as many direct experiences as possible in making business letters both pleasant and efficient. In addition, there is much reason to believe that an attempt should be made to improve the human relationships that exist between many people only through the medium of letter writing.

"Compositions" and Reports. Every teacher should continually strive to improve the effectiveness with which his pupils use language. For many years the improvement of language has been considered to be the special prerogative of the "English teacher." As long as this philosophy prevails, it is almost impossible to eradicate the distinction that exists between the "standards" required in English classes and those required in all other types of classes. Each writing activity, regardless of the class in which it occurs, should be an experience in the accepted forms of English construction. When this condition prevails there is reason to believe that a progressively higher level of usage can be expected.

In the traditional English class all pupils are assigned a specific number of "compositions" to write about specific topics. Most of these are unrelated to the pupil interests and needs. Today, an increasing number of schools are encouraging pupils to develop their skill in composition of all types in order to present in an interesting and clear manner the ideas that are important to the work they are doing in all areas. This condition alone can provide teachers with a common interest in working together. For example, if the writing is about a scientific topic, the science teacher can guide the development of the content, and the English teacher the development of the form.

Other Forms of Writing. Pupils are constantly being encouraged to write creatively. In a sense, all writing is creative if the writer is interpreting or developing an experience that is new for him. Writing provides a joyous means of expression, but the joy and enthusiasm with which a pupil attempts to use this medium can be nullified if the teacher first places a series of ill-defined and probably indefensible requirements in the path of the pupil. It has been stated before that all pupils will not find writing to be the most effective interpretative medium for them, but all pupils should be encouraged to explore the medium, if only briefly.

In some schools experiences in news writing are provided. Many reasons are advanced for offering experiences of this type, but, briefly, it can be stated that the stimulus resulting from having an audience to read one's writing and the emphasis placed on the resourcefulness of the writer provides a new motivation for developing one's ability to write. It is necessary to distinguish between journalism and a course in news writing. Journalism is a profession requiring many years of training, whereas news writing is another method

of motivating pupils to write and to develop an appreciation of the power of written material. Through the medium of news writing it is possible to guide those pupils toward careers in writing who demonstrate unusual ability with this type of expression.

DRAMATICS

At a very early age children display a strong interest in dramatics through all their play activities that begin with "let's pretend." Through dramatic play the child usually attempts to interpret some factor in his environment such as an animal, nurse, fireman, school-teacher, parent, etc. In many modern schools attempts are being made to analyze the natural dramatic expression of pupils in an attempt to discover hidden factors that may help the teacher guide the pupils more effectively.

As boys and girls progress from one grade level to another in the traditional sort of school, dramatics are frequently pushed aside. This condition arises because someone begins to demand a finished, professional type of performance, and to attain this end only the best pupil-actors can be permitted to participate. For example, it has not been uncommon to find "Senior Plays" in which the lead roles are played by sophomores and juniors. Such conditions merely furnish another example of distorted values, of teacher ambitions rather than pupil needs being fulfilled by this type of learning activity. It is not necessarily undesirable for a school to attempt to produce a finished dramatic product, but it is certainly dishonest and unprofessional to attempt to do so under any false guise.

In more modern schools we find that dramatics is being utilized more and more as a vehicle to carry desirable learning experiences. The pageantry that is used in physical education, in "script in hand" plays, in social studies, and in English classes, and the expansion of the summer-theater movement as a method of adult recreation are all contributing to this revival in interest. In addition, the advent of television plus the continuation of radio dramatizations are contributing to the reinstatement of drama in modern society. The maximum utilization of dramatic activity as a type of learning activity has not been realized. When teachers lose their fear of directing the production of something less than a "finished product," it is reasonable to expect to see dramatics used more frequently.

It is unwise to consider dramatics even briefly without again referring to the desirability of helping pupils to speak with freedom

and confidence before their peers. In a democratic society issues of concern to all must be discussed and debated in public. The efficient citizen is certainly one who participates in such discussions. For too many years a type of enforced silence has been inadvertently maintained in many classrooms. It is unwise for this condition to continue to exist. In the future it is hoped that discussion, debate, dramatics, etc., will be used more freely and that classrooms will really become laboratories dedicated to the preservation and advancement of the democratic way of life.

SUMMARY

Success in the greater majority of the learning activities at school is based on adequate language development. Unfortunately, the development of skill in language usage at the secondary level has been frequently considered to be the special prerogative of English teachers. As long as this condition remains paramount it is impossible for pupils to develop an adequate understanding of the importance of efficient language usage. On the other hand, when efficient language is stressed in all areas, pupils have the opportunity to participate in a continuous series of meaningful language activities throughout each school day.

The day in which a hard and fast line was drawn between literature and grammar is apparently passing. In addition, the motives for teaching literature are changing. Today, a great amount of emphasis is being placed on literary selections that enable pupils to understand and to adjust to the complex civilization of which they are a part. The increased size and heterogeneity of the secondary-school population have made mandatory the necessity of having literary selections that meet the needs of all pupils, regardless of their level of ability.

Throughout life, the writing of letters is the commonest use for written language. Correct form is still desired, but the traditional type of "grammatical rule assignments" is giving way to the process where correct usage is being taught largely by frequent repetition of accepted forms of English construction. In some schools experiences such as news writing have been added to stimulate interest in writing. Creative writing should be experienced by all pupils, but many will find that it is not the best means of expression for them.

The advent of television, the continuation of radio drama, the expanding use of "script in hand" plays, etc., are stimulating many

teachers to reconsider the advantages to be obtained from using dramatics in their classrooms. In the future it is hoped that the possibilities of using dramatics will be more fully realized.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Construct a bibliography of the "classics" which you think secondary-school pupils could use to achieve the basic aims set forth in this chapter. Briefly explain the contribution of each of these classics.

2. How would you determine the amount of time that should be devoted to a study of the classics? Of periodical literature? Of current documented literature?

3. Build an inventory of instances in which secondary pupils have occasion to use each of the three types of writing described in this chapter. Does an examination of these areas suggest ways in which efficient English can be utilized as an integral part of all secondary curricular areas?

4. Do you think that a study of "general language" will help secondary-school pupils become more effective users of English? At what grade level would you recommend that "general language" be introduced?

5. Construct a reading list of books that you believe will help secondary-school pupils better understand the "contemporary scene." Explain how you would motivate pupils to read selections from this list.

6. What purposes guide your selection of literature to use when teaching slow-learning pupils?

7. Explain how you provide for secondary pupils who need remedial reading instruction. How do you help pupils with no handicaps acquire advanced skill in reading?

8. Describe the attempts you have made to cooperate with other teachers in establishing a program to increase skill in the use of English that permeates the entire school day.

9. List the various activities which you feel should occur in a course, or block of time, devoted to news writing. How many of these activities can be directly integrated with the social sciences?

10. Explain the reasons underlying the use of dramatic activities in your school.

11. Describe the methods you use to evaluate a pupil's growth through participation in dramatic activities.

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Chapter 6. ELEMENTARY SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Any society that wants to survive must establish an educational program designed to prepare its youth to participate in its active affairs. In order to understand this point of view it is necessary to consider several important tenets: (1) Before an educational program can be planned it is necessary to identify the values that are held by society; (2) growth is a continuous process, consequently, the program of experiences designed to help each individual attain his realization of these values is a responsibility of the entire community; (3) schools are established in order to intensify the educational program by collectively providing youth with a multitude of experiences that cannot be provided for them individually in their homes; (4) the learning process is most effective when the learners are active rather than passive participants in it; (5) the values and the program of experiences designed to help youth attain them must be constantly evaluated in order to make the changes that are necessary in order to foster a progressive rather than a static society.

In the past, boys and girls at the elementary level have been subjected to a unilateral type of teaching in which the teacher attempted to fill them with social facts. Seldom were these boys and girls given the opportunity to react to each other or to study directly the social actions of their total schoolroom population, school, families, or community at large. Such teaching is not in harmony with the changing social setting in which boys and girls must live and which they must some day seek to improve.

The social-adjustment problem confronting boys and girls has two aspects: (1) They must develop the competencies necessary to live effectively in their world of today, and (2) through the development of these competencies, they must acquire the understandings, skills, and attitudes that will enable them to live and participate fully in their expanding world of tomorrow. Thus, a child who learns today to make an adequate social adjustment to the elementary group and

school of which he is a part will one day be more competent to understand and appreciate the broader concepts and implications of democratic action.

VALUE ANALYSIS IN A DEMOCRATIC WORLD

The values of democratic living cannot be realized in a society in which there is no vision. On the other hand, vision cannot be derived from idle daydreaming. It must be based upon a ruthless self-analysis of *what* the adherents of the democratic way of life believe. The mere process of analyzing democratic beliefs is fruitless unless positive action based on the analysis is taken.

Before schools can accept any role in fostering democracy, it is first necessary for them to have a workable definition of the term. It implies so many things to so many different people that it is very difficult to construct a common definition. Consequently, it is defined at this point by establishing eight basic characteristics of the democratic way of life. These characteristics are obviously inter-related and are separated only to assist in thought organization.

Group Living. It has often been stated that a child's first need in school is a social need. Children come from homes composed of, let us say, three to six members. Each child has lived very intimately with these family members. Quite suddenly, he is now placed for a substantial portion of each school day in a room with many other boys and girls. These boys and girls immediately begin to engage in a series of experiences directed by a teacher who is at first a stranger. The problem of adjusting to new people usually does not stop at this point. In most schools the children are soon aware of a person called "principal" and sometimes of several other categories of people such as janitors, supervisors, and special teachers. Emerging from a world of play, prejudices, home inadequacies or abundance, and the home responsibilities of childhood, each child is now expected to make an adjustment to this larger social group. He cannot realize success through his school experiences unless he makes this adjustment.

This adjustment problem does not begin and end in the school-room. The process of starting to school changes a child's relationship to his family. He now has a greater degree of independence despite the fact that he has more people upon whom he is dependent for direction. His parents may make modifications in their atti-

tude toward him for they now have a professional educator with whom they can consult about his developmental problems. His circle of friends may expand, and he will probably be permitted to play at the homes of more children. Such experiences offer him the opportunity to compare his home life with that of other children. His mother may develop new interests now that she is freed from continuous responsibility for him. From the standpoint of the child's development these experiences may be negative or positive depending upon their nature.

Some children walk to school, and many are brought to school by busses and other means of transportation. The process of getting from home to school poses another series of social-adjustment problems. For example, some children must conform to rules that have been established for conduct on school busses, while others must follow traffic patterns in order to have assistance in crossing busy streets. A community which always seemed to be quite large may quite suddenly be seen in a new perspective as many city blocks or many rural miles are habitually traversed each day.

The democratic value that can be approached through all of these adjustment problems is to help the child develop his appreciation of individual freedom and his efficiency as a group member. Proceeding from this point, the child should gradually develop his understanding of the nature of the relationships between individuals and groups, within groups, and between groups that have made the democratic ideal what it is today.

One criterion that may be used in evaluating a democratic society is to judge the effectiveness with which its adherents engage in group action. *The individual right and privilege to engage in group activity is a characteristic of the democratic way of life.*

Choice Making. The strength of a democracy is dependent upon the ability of its people to make intelligent choices. Such choices cannot and will not be made by people who are uninformed, who have had no experience in intelligent choice making, and who have not known the satisfaction that is derived from accepting the responsibility for self-direction.

The ability to make wise choices at high levels does not occur spontaneously. It must be preceded by experiences in choice making that have proceeded from the simple to the abstract. Thus, a child who is making mud pies must choose the right amount of water to

mix with the dirt in order to have a pie that will dry quickly and smoothly. Children who are helping to formulate rules to govern their conduct on a school journey must choose between several alternatives in order to have a learning experience that is profitable and pleasant for all. Or, to move to a higher level, man must choose wisely the transcultural values that will enable all men to live in a world of peace.

Man is capable of making choices only after he has had the opportunity to participate in an educational program that has been designed to promote his maximum personal development. Unfortunately, choice making is frequently thought to be a problem that is operative only in relation to the selection of a civil government. Actually, choice making pervades all aspects of man's development. It is through the making of intelligent choices and the right to make them that the dignity of man has been evolved.

Methods of directing the learning of children to the end of making intelligent choices must be based on the findings of psychology of learning. The following principles of learning should help the teacher select activities for any area that will make such learning more effective: ¹

1. Learning is most likely to occur when a child has a definite purpose to accomplish.
2. Activities must be set up that produce some active response by the child.
3. Learning, to be effective, must approach the unknown by way of the known.
4. The learning activities must be adapted to the individual needs of the child.
5. Learning, to be retained, must be used.

The privilege of managing one's own affairs, of choosing those things that you like and I do not, or of voluntarily joining in our agreement that a particular thing or person is good, bad, or best is a characteristic of democratic living.

Morality. Mores and legal regulations cause the greater proportion of the population to follow selected standards of behaviors. The

¹ From *School Briefs*, copyright, 1948, by Scott, Foresman and Company. Adapted from Teachers Edition, *Discovering Our World*, Books 1, 2, and 3 by Beauchamp, Williams, and Blough.

interpretation of and the severity attached to violations of these customs and regulations may vary somewhat from community to community, but there is a basic minimum standard that would be accepted by all.

The maintenance of standards pertaining to personal morality is certainly an admirable characteristic, but it is not enough. The social developmental experiences of the school must provide all boys and girls with the opportunity to consider problems such as poverty, starvation, disease, prejudices, and war. Examples of the majority of such problems are usually not far from most schools, and it is unrealistic not to consider them.

In the upper grades teachers frequently introduce problems of this nature in relationship to the agencies that have been established to cope with them.

This is fine as far as it goes, but it is to be doubted if such problems are being introduced soon enough and if boys and girls are being so educated that they develop a deep understanding of their responsibilities as individuals in relation to moral problems that transcend the realm of personal morality. For example, it is wonderful that we have organizations such as the Community Chest which are supported by voluntary contributions made by individual citizens. However, the question remains: Do my personal responsibilities to the organizations supported by the Community Chest end when I have given my donation? What should my attitude be toward the organizations supported by this program? Can I consider the organizations receiving such support as an entity, or must I develop a positive sympathetic attitude toward the individuals who are the recipients of the services offered by such organizations?

The significance of developing moral values that transcend the realm of personal morality must be considered on the national and international as well as the community level. It is one thing to pay taxes in order to foster the work of the agencies that administer social-security and unemployment-compensation benefits. But a major strength of the democratic way of life is to be found in the development of a sense of personal responsibility for those who have been less fortunate or who have been forced, by circumstances over which they ceased to have any control, to become inactive. On the international scale it is not enough to sponsor a United Nations organization or some type of foreign aid. Those who believe in the

democratic way of life must seek to develop a personal understanding of the individuals who will be enabled by such organizations to evolve a higher degree of personal freedom.

Obviously, the development of a deeper understanding of the problems to be solved within the framework of this concept cannot be unilateral. The motivation for thinking about such problems must stem from a love of people, a desire to create a general atmosphere of mutual respect, rather than from some obvious or hidden fear that must be retained.

To direct the learning of children so that they develop an appreciation of this concept is difficult. Despite the difficulty involved, each child should have experiences that will eventually help him understand the significance of the conditions that serve as barriers between men.

It is a characteristic of democratic people to help and to personally attempt to understand the problems of the less fortunate.

Conservation. Interpreting conservation as "the kind of resource use which results in the greatest good for the largest number of people for the longest time," the foreword of the American Association of School Administrators Yearbook for 1951 begins with the following statement: ²

Wasteful use and sometimes wanton destruction of natural resources have long been matters of grave concern to thoughtful Americans. Events in recent years, moreover, have underscored the frightening reality of serious shortages in certain vital resources.

To bring about the prudent use of natural resources in a democracy, large dependence must fall on education. This is not something to be accomplished by fiat or decree. Instead, children now in school and grownups in the world of business and industry must learn the true importance of natural resources and acquire both the incentive and the "know how" to use them wisely. Schools, here and there, have given some attention to the problem; but much more needs to be done. Unless conservation education becomes much more general and effective than it has been in the past, needless shortages soon will undermine the prosperity of our people.

The authors of the yearbook from which these paragraphs are quoted realized full well that indisputable relationships exist be-

² *Conservation Education in American Schools*, p. 7, Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1951.

tween natural resources, human resources, and cultural patterns. The vital importance of natural resources must always be considered. The social developmental program must also include experiences that help boys and girls develop an understanding of the relationship of man to his natural environment. The fact that teachers recognize the importance of this relationship is attested by their growing tendency to integrate the materials of the social sciences and natural sciences into programs for social development.

Children are the greatest resource of any nation. Erosion of one type or another among their ranks can be more devastating to the general welfare than any amount of needless natural-resource expenditure. A certain type of conservation will follow the enactment of appropriate legislation. The desired type can only be produced by an adequate educational program that involves human as well as natural-resource conservation.

As enrollments in the public schools have continued to increase, the education of the gifted child has frequently been neglected. The wrong application of a democratic concept causes many teachers to develop an "all complex"—the education that is good for one is good for all; all children must be able to read by the end of the first grade; all children this and all children that. Obviously, such a position does not permit the development of an adequate curriculum and can only be maintained in defiance of current knowledge about the nature of human growth and development. The distinct contributions of the gifted have contributed immeasurably to the advancement of civilization. It is imperative that these individuals be provided a learning environment in which their abilities are constantly challenged. The following statement appears in *Education of the Gifted* and is pertinent at this point:³

All of us are indebted, more than most of us realize, to those few of our ancestors and our contemporaries who have had rare talents and put them to use. If society is indebted to its gifted members, so are the gifted indebted to society. The human mind develops by interaction with other minds. New ideas spring from old ideas. The gifted individual depends on the community for the development of his gifts. The community is also the agency through which those gifts can be made socially fruitful.

³ *Education of the Gifted*, pp. 10, 11, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1950.

The preceding statement does not permit the assumption that the gifted are to be exploited. It is a challenge to society to so educate them that they, and all people, will prosper through the maximum release of their potential abilities.

The other dimension of this problem involves the creation of an adequate educational program for the less gifted. Just as in the case of the gifted children, these individuals cannot make happy, maximum contributions to society unless they are educated to do so. The traditional school program is just as inadequate in meeting the needs of this group as it is in meeting the needs of the gifted. In many instances the years at school are often unhappy years for the less gifted group, not only because the learning experiences are ill-adapted to their needs, but because their parents insist that they be offered experiences that can be profitable only for the gifted. This condition mandates a continuous program of adult education.

Many aged individuals are institutionalized or inactivated in some other way when they should still be productive. To retire and to be able to live the good life is one thing; but to be inactivated and caused to deteriorate when still sound in mind and body is another. Our schools have an obligation to direct the learning experiences of all in such a manner that positive attitudes are developed toward the maintenance and utilization of all human resources as long as possible.

Viewed in this light, conservation becomes a problem with many factors, all of which must be integrated if it is to be solved. In this area the moral and materialistic values of our society can certainly be brought together on a common basis.

The citizens of a democracy understand the relationship between man and his environment and strive constantly to use and develop intelligently their human and natural resources.

The American Heritage. It has been America's privilege to develop a culture based upon the integration of many cultures. Archibald MacLeish has rightly indicated that *America Was Promises*. The truth of this statement is brought out as the realization develops that the ultimate attraction of America is the opportunity that it offers for men to gain dignity. In order to maintain this promise men have fought and died; have established a government through acts of reflective thought rather than through force; have maintained the excellence of the family group as basic to the democratic philosophy;

have established churches whose goal is to develop man's intrinsic worth; and have established schools in order that all may fully realize the heritage that is America's and be more capable of improving and expanding that heritage.

The opportunity to profit by this American heritage is the birthright of all. This birthright includes many freedoms and each freedom carries with it many responsibilities. Each individual must have the opportunity to develop the attitudes, appreciations, and understandings that make these freedoms meaningful in their broadest sense. In conjunction with such development, man's individual abilities must be released in order that he may gain the maximum competency to execute his responsibilities. This concept of freedom and responsibility cannot be dualistic, nor can it be unilateral—it must be an integrated whole.

These things being true, the unalterable but manageable pattern begins to develop. Man, endowed by his Creator, now becomes: ⁴

Earnest in love: perfectible by reason:
Just and perceiving justice: his natural nature
Clear and sweet at the source as springs in trees are.
It was Man the promise contemplated.
The times had chosen Man: no other:
Bloom on his face of every future:
Brother of stars and of all travelers:
Brother of time and of all mysteries:
Brother of grass also: of fruit trees.
It was Man who had been promised: who should have.

This is the heritage of Americans. To be sure, the natural resources are great, the population and the climate are varied, politics are sometimes troublesome, the automobiles are fast, and the standard of living is high. *But the distinguishing characteristic of the heritage is that youth turning to man is provided the opportunity to release whatever abilities he has, to develop prudence, and to be free.*

Work. The right to work and to share in the benefits that result from it is a value to cherish. Free men cannot be parasitical nor must they become unthinking cogs in a mighty industrial machine.

⁴ Archibald MacLeish, *America Was Promises*. Used by permission of the author.

At least from the beginning of the school years boys and girls should begin to develop positive attitudes toward, appreciations of, and competencies at work. Work experiences of all types should provide children with the opportunity to develop an appreciation for the significance of their contributions to the completion of the final product. Such experiences should go even further, and children should be encouraged to evaluate the social significance of their contributions.

During the early years work experiences will be confined largely to the home, schoolroom, or school. As the program is intensified, experiences in the community are desirable. At a still later date work will involve the creation of new things, the assembling of parts of things, farming, parenthood, statesmanship, and professional services of all kinds. But whatever the work involved, whatever degree of difficulty attached to it, man must be so educated that he seeks to understand and appreciate the contribution and significance of his work to his fellow men.

Citizens of a democracy believe that each individual should have the opportunity to work, to profit by his labors, and to understand the social significance of the work of others.

Recreation. Self-realization becomes a meaningful concept only when the individual develops worth-while recreational pursuits. The range of possibilities from which an individual can choose is tremendous. However, for each individual the range is somewhat delimited by his ability, age, economic resources, sex, and geographical location.

In the present complex society schools have a real function to perform in helping each individual to discover the recreational areas in which he can find satisfying and socially meaningful experiences. Many other agencies must cooperate, but for most individuals the modern school with its testing and guidance services is indispensable. The complete social development of American youth can become a reality only if their entire pattern of activities is balanced and integrated into a meaningful whole.

From the very first years in school each child's health, abilities, interests, play activities, and hobbies should be recorded. This record should follow him through all his years at school. It should be an invaluable source of information from which the teacher can draw

to enrich the social developmental experiences of the child and his group.

The democratic way of life affords each individual the opportunity and the time to further his sense of self-realization by selecting recreational pursuits that are satisfying and positively socially significant.

Individual Dignity. The goal of the program for social development is to raise continually the dignity of all individuals. The opportunity for each individual to develop his aggregate of distinctive characteristics is certainly a value that is basic within the democratic philosophy. Through such development the individual's intrinsic worth and general excellence are increased. In a democracy the unique qualities of each individual must be preserved and utilized as a strength. Each individual must, however, clearly understand the relationship between such qualities and his responsibility to society. Human beings do not develop in isolation from each other, or, as previously stated: ⁵

The human mind develops by interaction with other minds. New ideas spring from old ideas. The gifted individual [all individuals] depends on the community for the development of his gifts. [And in turn] the community is also the agency through which the gifts can be made socially fruitful.

Democracy is government in which the supreme power is retained by the people and exercised directly or indirectly. These people are unique, dignified, and free. Each person must have the opportunity to develop whatever resources he has to the end that through his contribution he may prosper and through his prospering his fellow men will also prosper. Thus, in a continuous manner, at the end as at the beginning, the democratic goal is to raise the level of human dignity to succeeding higher levels.

In a democracy the emphasis is always on the people. It can be whatever the people want it to be, or as the Honorable Charles Evans Hughes has said, "The peril of this nation is not in any foreign foe! We, the people, are its power, its peril, and its hope!"

It is a characteristic of the democratic way of life to help each individual prepare to assume the responsibilities of self-government. Through the intelligent assumption of these responsibilities, the level of human dignity is constantly raised.

⁵ *Education of the Gifted.*

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTAL EXPERIENCES

The modern elementary school places a great amount of its curricular emphasis on social development. For this reason it is becoming an ideal place to lay the foundations for the development of the type of understanding that is necessary if people are to live happily together.

In all aspects of human relations problems are constantly arising. Consequently, from the very beginning, much emphasis must be placed on problem solving. In support of this belief the *Report of the Second National Conference on Citizenship* stated: ⁶

Each class and activity should emphasize basic civic skills such as problem solving and democratic participation.

Problem solving should be carried on at all grade levels and should be consistent with the level of maturity of the student. It should be substituted for authoritarian methods from the kindergarten through college education. Problems of society should be presented as in process of solution, with no "answers in the back of the book." An essential part of the process, however, is a knowledge of the positive successes in problem solving which experience offers. As a part of problem solving, emphasis should be placed on the development of critical thinking with special reference to the viewpoints and prejudices coming from the press, radio, and movies.

Students should learn to work cooperatively in class and school activities. The teacher must sacrifice domination and formal discipline to giving more experiences in group work. The role of the teacher is that of colleague and friend rather than taskmaster.

Reference was made earlier in this chapter to the combination of principles which, collectively, make learning more effective. These principles are closely associated with the steps involved in problem solving, which are:

1. Definition of the problem
2. Establishment of a hypothesis
3. Finding, analyzing, and associating pertinent data to the hypothesis
4. Forming tentative conclusions and recommendations for plans of action

⁶ *Report of the Second National Conference on Citizenship*, pp. 37, 38, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1947.

It is easy enough to talk or write about developing group consciousness, citizenship, or broader understanding during the early years at school. It is quite another matter to understand just how this occurs. Therefore, for clarification, consider the following problem that came to the attention of a second-grade group:⁷

A new boy coming into a second-grade group posed problems of a different sort and prompted the focusing of all activities for several weeks on the people of his homeland. Carlos, the new boy, aged seven years, was from Santiago, Chile. He knew only a few English words. The children regarded him, at first, with so much curiosity. They liked to hear him speak in Spanish. "He talks so fast and so funny," they commented. Where was he from? How did he get here? But after the early period of acquaintance, Carlos was noticeably by himself. The difference in language was a bit of a handicap. The children were not always willing to take time, especially on the playground, to make things clear. At this point, the teacher took the initiative.

Capitalizing upon the children's interest in anything "different," the teacher proposed a bargain. Inasmuch as the boys and girls were teaching Carlos English words, why not ask Carlos to teach them some Spanish words and phrases? Wouldn't it be fun to know how to say "Hi!" "Thank you," and "Good morning," in two languages? Before long, Carlos and the others were bringing in pictures of houses, schools, churches, movies, and stores and labeling them in both English and Spanish. Just as the problem of bringing the Chilean boy into the class group seemed about solved, a new note entered the situation.

Carlos was no longer being ignored nor being regarded as an inferior. He was rapidly becoming the idol of the class. Whatever he did was right. The children laughed uproariously at his newly acquired skill with bubble gum and his facility in the use of American slang. There was an increasing tendency for the boys and girls to watch Carlos' reaction to proposed plans. Without question, this was as undesirable a situation as the former. Could a group experience be planned in which the immediate interest in the Chilean boy could be utilized and yet the child as an individual become simply one of the class? A movie about life in Chile provided the impetus. "Let's plan a trip to Santiago, where Carlos lives."

In the days that followed, as the children went to the local airport to find out how airplanes are constructed and what they look like "inside," and as they returned to their classrooms to form committees to build a huge plane of their own, Carlos became one of the class. Al-

⁷ *Improving Human Relations*, pp. 56-58, National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1949.

though the little Chilean boy could tell the North American children much about Santa Lucia Hill when they arrived at Santiago in their imaginary plane, he, in turn, had much to learn from them about the construction of airplanes. In the give-and-take of a learning experience which was interesting, meaningful, and varied, national differences were forgotten. The children learned about the food, homes, games, climate, clothing, occupations, and customs of a South American country. They learned about likenesses and differences between the people of North and South America. They could now sing several Spanish folk songs and dance the rumba. All of this knowledge would probably contribute something to their understanding of Carlos and his homeland. But most important of all, the boys and girls had learned for themselves that a child is neither inferior nor superior simply because he speaks a different language or comes from across the sea. Carlos deserved to be accepted into all group activities because of his own fine, personal qualities. He had much to share with his new friends. He also deserved a share of all that his North American classmates considered fun and of value.

The experiences that developed out of this situation were manifold. Some will say that not every classroom has a seven-year-old boy from Chile or that many schools are not located close to airports. Denied a direct experience such as the one described, the ingenious teacher will turn to other means. He will use books, audio-visual materials of all kinds, tell stories, prepare simple dishes from other countries, locate places on maps and globes, sing songs from other countries—in general, the children and the teacher will search earnestly for any method or aid that will enrich their learning. It is so convenient to say, "It can't be done in my school"—and so meaningless.

Tolerance Is Not Enough. As the interdependence of men is constantly increased and as modern means of communication continue to destroy the barriers of natural boundaries, distance, and travel time, it is important to develop attitudes that are "more than tolerant." It is advisable for the elementary teacher to remember: ^a

Children are not naturally intolerant. Left alone, young children of different backgrounds work and play happily together. Individuals may be disliked, they may quarrel—but personal qualities, not the group to

^a *More Than Tolerance*, p. 7, Commission on the Defense of Democracy through Education, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1946.

which they belong, are the cause. Hence the school must foster a naturally good attitude and teach pupils how to resist intolerance in others.

As the director of the social developmental experiences, the teacher must constantly maintain an attitude that is consistent with the goals that have been established for the group. The following quotation contains a caution that all teachers should heed: ⁹

Teachers' actions impress pupils more than their words, and young people in school are often quicker to detect insincerity than their elders sometimes think. To be successful, the teacher must have a philosophy of respect for the individual and know how to put it into practice. They must be aware of injustices in the community so as to discuss how to overcome them with their classes, but must not contribute to those injustices by their own attitudes. . . . Pupils who are not subject to arbitrary discrimination in school can more readily be fair and friendly to their schoolmates and thus be better equipped to carry good habits away from school.

In some instances, the attitudes toward tolerance at home may be different from those maintained at school. Such conditions are always unfortunate, and those responsible for educational leadership should exert every effort to establish harmony based upon the democratic philosophy. A need for parent education may be indicated. In any case, the school must accept the responsibility for establishing an example that indicates the direction in which growth is needed.

The Community. As children move through successive years at school, their program for social development must be constantly intensified. For example, in the primary grades children visit fire stations, stores, farms, grange halls, farm cooperatives, post offices, courthouses, and many other types of agencies that serve their community. In addition, they identify the various occupations of their parents and supplement these with resource persons representing occupations not previously identified. Gradually, the children begin to develop an awareness of the extent of the community and of the multitude of services that must be rendered to maintain life in it.

Passing on into the intermediate grades the awareness becomes more intense and begins to deepen into understanding as the chil-

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

dren study the interrelationships between all factors in the community. The question now arises: Just what is a community? Krug and Quillen answer it in the following way: ¹⁰

This example of Rochester, Indiana, brings out the points needed to show more exactly what is meant by a community.

First of all, Rochester consists of people—nearly four thousand of them, living, working, and playing together. Second, these people do not live just anywhere, but in a definite place—an area sixteen blocks long and ten wide on U.S. Highway 31 in the state of Indiana. In the third place, these people possess the means to carry on the work of meeting human needs. Another way to say it is that Rochester has stores, railroads, churches, a newspaper, a telephone company, a public library, a hospital, and schools. To sum it all up, then, a community is a group of people living together in a particular place, who have the means for carrying on their common activities.

How do people carry on these activities (or you can call them tasks, or enterprises, or just plain jobs) in order to provide community living?

1. They protect their lives and health.
2. They protect their property.
3. They make, sell, and use goods and people's services.
4. They maintain government and courts to help them live safely, justly, and at peace with one another.
5. They provide for the transportation of people and goods.
6. They provide for communication among people in the community group and with people outside.
7. They satisfy their needs for religion and beauty.
8. They have fun and recreation.
9. They carry on education.

Whenever any group of people has the means of carrying on these activities, it forms a complete community. The community may make up a little village or an entire big city. It may be only a part of a large city, such as Ravenswood in Chicago, the Sunset District in San Francisco, Shaker Heights in Cleveland, or the Bronx in New York.

It is not always easy to decide about the boundaries of a community. It cannot be said that a community must live entirely without help from the outside, for no community today can do that. Each complete community, though, has some provisions for carrying on the nine group activities just mentioned.

¹⁰ From *Living in Our Communities*, pp. 13, 14, by Edward Krug and I. James Quillen. Copyright, 1950, by Scott, Foresman and Company.

Perhaps you have been wondering about the difference between a community and a neighborhood. Rochester, Indiana, is one community, but it consists of several neighborhoods, each of which differs from the others. First of all, there is the business district around the courthouse square, with the stores, the banks, courthouse, city hall, the telephone exchange, and the post office. But in this neighborhood you will not find the churches, the hospital, the railroad station, the schools, the library, the tennis courts, or the golf course. So this particular neighborhood does not provide the means for carrying on all the types of group activities.

Down along south Main Street is another neighborhood. It is a residential district where the well-to-do families live. It looks different and is different from the business district. In it are the churches, a school, and the hospital, but there are no stores, no police station, and no courthouse. It is plainly just a neighborhood that must depend on other neighborhoods. It is certainly obvious that it is not a complete community.

There is no one neighborhood in Rochester that provides the means for carrying on all types of group activities. But when we put all the neighborhoods together, we do have a complete community.

Obviously, understandings referring to the interrelated aspects of community organization are difficult to develop. It is important to remember that all youth will one day be expected to assume adult citizenship responsibilities. Among other things, this means that they must become well-adjusted, participating members of the communities in which they live. There is much reason to believe that this condition can best be implemented by offering them experiences in school that include the opportunity to participate in community life. One cannot learn to become a good citizen through books alone. It is imperative that direct experiences in citizenship and community membership be provided for all. Growth in this respect must begin early and be continuous. It cannot be based upon a philosophy that would maintain: You have been provided with six years of "book learning" about citizenship; now go forth and be a responsible citizen.

Numbers in Everything. Most adults agree that a great amount of emphasis should be placed upon social development. They sometimes believe that such development is monopolizing the time at school and advocate that more attention be given to the development of skills in arithmetic, science, and reading. The conflict that arises at this point is based upon a misunderstanding that exists between the school and home.

In the world of today children need more competency than ever before in the so-called "basic skills." However, they need to develop this competency in such a way that it can be used. For example, experiences with arithmetic and mathematics must go beyond the bonds of pure computation. They must be used to help children learn to think in a quantitative and qualitative manner. At the intermediate level the program for social development must include experiences that reveal the importance of numbers in the development of modern technology in research or in the daily management of living. Just how this works is well exemplified in the United States census handbook, *We Count in 1950*.¹¹

NUMBERS IN EVERYTHING

Numbers are used everywhere in life. If we become ill the doctor takes our temperature, measures our blood pressure, and determines our weight. These conditions are expressed in numbers and will be compared with "normal" figures or standards. If a man buys a suit of clothes the salesman must know his height, weight, and girth. Before starting a motor trip we usually estimate the mileage, the probable purchases of gasoline and oil, and the expenses of food, housing, and other necessary items.

We also think in numerical terms over a period of months and years. The family breadwinner thinks about his present wages, the current cost of living, and the possibility of increasing his income. Similarly, we plan our savings in order to buy a new house or the latest model car. Life involves constant attention to "figures"—whether they are numerical descriptions of our weight, income, expenditures, or other interests.

Yet, many of us wish to avoid statistics. "Just tell me in plain words!" we exclaim. "Don't mix me up with a lot of figures." Why do we talk this way? Perhaps it is because we have never had enough experience with numbers as applied to the social and economic questions of our daily existence.

It would not be difficult for most teachers to find opportunities to express historical and social ideas in number form. Often, for example, we are content to say: "In 1790 the United States had a small population." But how small is "small" in the minds of the 34 pupils in a classroom? Each child is likely to have his own idea of the word and there may be no common understanding. It would be just as easy to say: "In the 1790 Census the United States had a total population of about 4,000,000 peo-

¹¹ Frank W. Hubbard, *We Count in 1950*, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., 1950.

ple. Now, Jean, you stand over here by my desk and we will say that you are the 4,000,000 people in 1790. The rest of you—33 in all—will represent the 132,000,000 people of the United States in 1940. Now do you see why we speak of the population as 'small' in 1790 and 'large' in 1940?"

The size of the early population of America, the development of its resources, the shifts in occupations and industries, the expansion of Government, the amounts and uses of taxes, the changes in immigration, and the variations in agriculture—these are but a few of the items which, when expressed statistically, help to deepen our understanding of American history. As adult citizens we will often find in census figures the explanations of new laws passed by Congress or by State Legislatures. As voters, members of local civic groups, and consumers, our decisions will be wiser when we know how to judge and evaluate the conditions behind social problems. While no one expects the average person to be a walking encyclopedia or a human slide rule, still the Nation's welfare will be safer when the sources and the character of reliable statistics are known to many citizens.

This quotation clearly emphasizes the need for integrating many learning experiences that traditionally have been considered separately. It is a goal of the modern school to develop whole concepts rather than to memorize isolated bits of meaningless information.

The American Culture. To build a strong democracy it is necessary for youth to develop a continuing appreciation of what America is and stands for. In order to accomplish the first part of this dual purpose youth must have many opportunities to explore in the past. The purpose of such explorations should be to develop an understanding of the pattern that has developed, of the forces that affected its development, and of the people who participated. The emphasis must always be upon the people, their contributions, and the conditions that made them what they were. All too frequently, only those individuals who have attained fame are considered. These people are important, but much more time should be given to a consideration of the average citizen of the past, his contributions, and how he lived.

If explorations into the past are to be meaningful, it is necessary to evaluate the methods that are used. Earlier in this chapter reference was made to the desirability of employing the method of problem solving to implement social development. Several examples will

illustrate this method of teaching. In *Toward Modern America*,¹² Snedaker and Dunfee make the following statement at the beginning of their interesting account of America's history:

The fifth grade at Fairview School was humming with activity. It was five minutes of ten and almost time for the children to share and talk about the special things they had brought to school.

The children had planned today's sharing time for "things that happened long ago." Several of them were ready with books, pictures, and interesting objects.

Jane showed a battered candle mold and told how to use it. Bob brought an old newspaper dated 1865. Someone else had a copy of a letter signed "A. Lincoln" and picture postcards of Mount Vernon. One after another the boys and girls told about the things they had brought.

Then it was John's turn. "My dad brought this book to me from the library. It has a copy of one of the first stories ever written about America. Can you guess what it is?"

There were many ideas and some good guesses, but finally Dick said, "Could it belong to Columbus? That's about as far back in America's story as we can go."

John smiled. "You've guessed. This book contains what Columbus wrote about his first journey to the New World. I often wondered how we found out what happened, and now I know."

"Read us some," said several children.

John read and finished by saying, "There's more here. You may look for yourselves if you want to. Are there any questions?"

"Yes, I have one," spoke up Bill. "If Columbus really wrote the journal, does that prove that he discovered America?"

"He does tell about reaching land and meeting the redskinned natives," John answered. "Of course, we know now that there were other white men in America before Columbus. The trouble is, they didn't write down what they saw and did."

At this point Miss Anderson broke in. She explained to the children that, although Columbus wrote a journal that is one of the most important records about the beginnings of our America, there are hundreds of other such records that help to tell the story of our people. When the records and objects of the past have been studied and have been put into a story of things that have already happened, the story is called "History." True history cannot be written without the help of source materials like the journal that John read. He had helped his class to begin thinking about the records from which the story has been made.

¹² Mabel Snedaker and Maxine Dunfee, *Toward Modern America*, pp. 1-4, John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1951.

The authors continue with a series of sectional titles of which the following are representative: (1) The People of Europe Learn about the Far East; (2) Building Homes in Virginia; (3) Our Country Grows toward the Pacific; (4) From Home to Factory; (5) Iron and Steel; etc. Throughout, the approach is centered around people and institutions—who they are and what they do.

In her booklet *A Williamsburg Family*, Mary Selby begins an account of "A day in Williamsburg in the 18th Century" in this manner: ¹³

Let's pretend that this is a family that lived in Williamsburg in Virginia about the year 1760.

These are only pictures of them, of course, but when we know how they looked, what sort of clothes they wore and the things they did, we forget that they lived such a long time ago. We are going to talk about them as if they were still in Williamsburg. We will make believe that we see them and hear what they say.

The author continues with an account of the daily activities of a family of long ago.

Such stories offer pupils the opportunity to integrate subject matter from many areas. All the following questions could easily be developed after this story has been read:

1. Why was it necessary for "Moses" to fan the fire to make it burn well?
2. What is pewter?
3. From what material do we make "wash stands" today?
4. What did children study in the schools of Williamsburg? Did all the children go to school? Why are all children required to go to school today?
5. Why did the father buy a suit from London? Why didn't he go "down town" and buy a suit? Where is London?
6. What is a harpsichord?
7. Why did the people use candles? Why didn't they use lamps? Who invented the electric light? How is electricity made? How does electricity get from the place where it is made to our houses?

Too frequently, children believe that citizenship or contributions to community development involve activities that are reserved for

¹³ Mary Selby, *A Williamsburg Family*, p. 1, Samuel Gabriel Sons & Company, New York, 1940.

the adult years. To combat the development of this belief and make youth an integral part of our society, it is often desirable to turn to stories such as "The Garden Mercy Planted."¹⁴ This is the story of nine-year-old Mercy Harriman who planted the first garden in Bath, New Hampshire. In the story Mercy accepts responsibility for her sister, brother, and the baby; successfully thwarts an Indian attempt to capture herself and the other children; and, in the end, plants a garden. This particular adaptation of the story is summarized in the following account:

The garden that Mercy planted in the year 1767 began to grow and spread.

Soon other settlers came. They planted and took care of other gardens.

One evening, fifty years later, some farmers sat in the village store in Bath. They talked about the days of long ago.

One man told of the Harriman family who had come with their oxen to make the first home in the valley. Another told the story of Mercy and the Indians. They talked of the garden that Mercy planted, the first garden in Bath.

They thought that strangers who came to Bath should know about Mercy and her garden.

If you go to Bath now, you will find an iron fence around the spot where Mercy made the first garden in Bath.

On a great rock nearby, you will see the words that tell how nine-year-old Mercy Harriman carried earth in her apron to make that garden.

Building for Social Development. Democracy is an on-going way of life. A child is born and for a long period of time is very dependent upon his parents. During these formative years it is extremely important for him to develop many habits of independence such as dressing, feeding, or amusing himself. As time passes, he must also begin to develop an awareness and appreciation for the interdependence of the various members of his family. These are frequently classified as very difficult years, but their difficulty is surpassed by their importance.

When the child approaches the school years, he must develop a readiness for leaving the confines of the family and participating in a larger social group. At school the child's first need is a social one. Here he is placed under the professional direction of a teacher who

¹⁴ From *Children of the Handcrafts*, pp. 141, 154, by Carolyn Sherwin Bailey, The Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1935.

will help him analyze his abilities. These are, in turn, capitalized upon as strengths to foster his development and to enrich the total living pattern of his group. In addition, his appreciation of the factor of interdependence is constantly developed until it is expanded through his school and into the community. At all times it is necessary to remember that the social development of the young is a responsibility of the total community; the school is only one agency serving this function. Teachers often discover or rediscover that the community contains many valuable resources that can enrich and serve the social developmental program.

The major part of the program for social development is centered in the present tense. Pupils must also develop an appreciation for the time, events, and people of the past. As the program is intensified, they should be motivated to think about the world of tomorrow. Thus conceived, social development eventually capitalizes upon the combined and forecastable experiences of all mankind. The program is centered around the constantly evolving dignity of free men. History becomes present tense in the sense that *it lives* rather than *has lived*. Mathematics and science change from a series of cold, hard facts into useful tools that implement the freeing of men from the heart-rending, degrading tentacles of the past.

As man becomes free he becomes moral in the sense that his thoughts transcend the limitations that are placed upon him by the concept of "personal morality" alone. As this evolving process becomes real, man becomes worthy of the powers that have been given to him alone and can begin to progress from the barriers of imperfection with which he has surrounded himself.

Any social developmental program that proposes to raise the dignity of all men, that maintains that men are capable of resolving their conflicts through the medium of intelligent planning rather than through recourse to some form of war, must first be child centered. From this central point an ever-widening circle of experiences must be plotted that will eventually enable the individual to appreciate and to understand his relationship to the complete social scene.

The preceding ideas are not necessarily new. However, the importance of emphasizing the beginning of a social developmental program such as this is comparatively modern. The teacher who

needs help to develop his thinking about such a program should first consider the following tenets:

1. Group life in America is based upon the principles of democracy.
2. Democratic values can best be taught in a democratic school system.
3. The school is only one influence in a child's life and should not be distinctly separated from the others.
4. The entire community should be utilized as a laboratory in which the ways of democracy are learned.
5. The purpose of the social developmental program is to help young people develop more effective behavior patterns in all types of social situations.
6. Democratic processes are best learned through participation.
7. Social developmental experiences should be integrated rather than separated into small compartmentalized areas.
8. All social developmental experiences should contribute toward making each child intelligently self-directive.
9. Experiences should be planned that will aid in the interpretation of contemporary life.
10. Problems selected for study must be varied enough to challenge all levels of ability.

SUMMARY

The first step in planning a program for social development is to identify the values held by society. In America these values are basically related to the democratic concept. Since democracy must be a highly personal way of thinking and acting, it is more meaningful to define it by analyzing its characteristics.

Human beings develop through interaction with other human beings. When the goals for social development have been established, the problem becomes one of setting a stage on which a progressively intensified series of such interactions can occur. Human interaction does not take place at school alone. It permeates the entire life of the child. Every effort should be made to establish harmony between the out-of-school and in-school philosophies of social development.

The social developmental program cannot all be centered in the present tense. It must include explorations into the past and foreseeable future. The major part of the emphasis must be upon the people, their contributions, and the conditions that surround them.

A constant effort must be made to integrate experiences from many areas in order that children may have the opportunity to develop whole concepts.

It is a responsibility of elementary teachers to provide meaningful experiences that will help each pupil become a successful member in his present social group, thus leading him to competent living in a larger society.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. What is meant by "democratic living"?
2. Explain the procedures you have employed to help children develop an understanding of the delimitations that characterize the democratic interpretation of "freedom" and "responsibility." What differences exist in the interpretation of the word "freedom" when it is used in describing a child's relationships with the "safety patrol" and his actions during the "art period"?
3. In modern schools a great amount of emphasis is placed upon "group living." What type of procedure should be used to help children learn to live independently?
4. What methods do you use in order to identify children's purposes for participating in social developmental learning situations? What information must be available before you can adequately evaluate these purposes?
5. Describe a particular incident in which you have capitalized upon an opportunity to help children develop "ethical character."
6. How do you motivate pupil participation in conservation activities?
7. Construct a bibliography of children's books that are primarily concerned with the development of the American heritage.
8. What methods do you use to identify community personnel who can make an effective contribution when placed in an elementary-classroom situation?
9. Explain how you use charts, diagrams, and graphs to help intermediate-grade children develop an understanding of the interrelationships that exist between the various factors that exist in most communities.
10. Discuss the methods you have used to motivate your pupils to be sensitive to the characteristics of "child life" in other parts of the world.
11. In what ways do you use "numbers" in elementary social science learning situations? Can you identify an incident that occurred in such a situation that indicated a need for drill on some arithmetical process?
12. Describe the techniques you use to evaluate growth toward the qualities of the good citizen.

13. In what ways do you cooperate with parents in providing children with "around the clock" experiences in social development?

14. What are the advantages and disadvantages of organizing some form of student government at the elementary level?

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Chapter 7. ADVANCED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

As youth progress through the "school years," the program for social development gradually becomes more intense. In the beginning, the child's first need at school was a social need. This need continues throughout the school years and on into adult life, but its character changes somewhat. This change is gradually brought about through the process of growth which involves the development of (1) a greater degree of emotional stability; (2) a certain amount of information that will serve as the basis for more intensive learning experiences; (3) desirable attitudes involving curiosity, tolerance, considerateness, critical mindedness, cooperativeness, and community mindedness; (4) desirable competencies involving improved study habits, problem-solving techniques, social grace, discussion techniques, and personal confidence; and (5) a greater degree of physical and mental maturity.

CITIZENSHIP

Many people believe the intensified program of social development has only one goal, to make better citizens. The acceptance or rejection of this belief depends entirely upon the definition that is used.

In 1868 a clause was inserted into the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States of America which reads as follows: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside." The "jurisdiction" of the United States government is derived from the people; therefore, citizenship embraces the individual responsibility of preparing to accept the obligations of group living and to profit by the advantages of freedom. This responsibility involves two immediate tasks of paramount importance, "(1) That of solving crucial social problems in a

highly complex interdependent society, and (2) that of solving these problems by democratic processes.”¹

Within the framework of this definition the American schools face the challenge of so educating youth that they are capable of meeting these problems.

Citizenship, an Emotional Reality. What types of experiences do youth need in order to be able to solve problems according to democratic processes? It is easy to state that they need individual and group problem-solving experiences. This type of answer has come to be trite. It suggests nothing about the motivation youth should have to become good citizens. It ignores the possibility of using a selective factor in determining the problems to be solved. It is so bland that it disregards the establishment of a sequential series of experiences geared to the rate of growth of which youth are capable. Nevertheless, problem solving is essential. The fallacy lies in the apparent reluctance to ever identify the problem-solving method with the attempt to achieve some particular goal.

In a world characterized by *change* it is hazardous but challenging to attempt to think in terms of specific problems. If youth do not have the opportunity to at least formulate hypotheses concerning specific problems, there is a real danger that their learning may be devoid of the stability they so earnestly need. Inherent within the following six tenets are particular, challenging problems toward which youth could well direct their abilities:²

We believe . . .

Whether American democracy can rise to solve the problems of peace in a highly complex, interdependent, mechanized society will be determined during the next twenty-five years, and the outcome will depend in large measure upon the schools of America.

Every generation must relive, through history, literature, song, and verse, America's struggle for freedom. Appreciation for America's past is more than an intellectual conception; it is an emotional reality.

America's golden age lies ahead. The goals toward which civilized man has struggled for centuries, and which are recorded in our Declaration

¹ *Paths to Better Schools*, p. 107, Twenty-third Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1945.

² *Ibid.*, p. 106.

of Independence, the preamble to the Constitution, and Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, are still before us.

Schools must teach a realistic understanding of the present appropriate to different age levels. Schools must assiduously avoid developing either social cynics or gullible believers in fairy tales about the present.

The cardinal virtue of a citizen in a democracy is self-control. Self-control is an achievement; it cannot be awarded or endowed; it cannot be attained through words only; it must be practiced and lived virtually from birth.

Social change inevitably follows changes in the physical world. In the fast moving world of today, where man is subjected to more changes in his own lifetime than his ancestors faced in many generations, failure to adjust can be individually fatal and socially disastrous.

To develop the problems in these tenets it is necessary for the classrooms of America to become active learning laboratories. Experiences drawn from history must involve more than rote memorization exercises. Rather, they must be conceived in such a way that they are "emotional realities" for all who experience them. The emphasis must always be on the present and the future but the patterns of the past must be incorporated in order to develop the fullest possible understanding.

At first, statements such as "a realistic understanding of the present" and the development of "emotional reality" seem to be incongruous. However, such incongruity as might be conceived can have its conception only in the minds of people who think in a strictly materialistic manner. This is a very limited way of thinking. Democratic citizens are becoming increasingly aware that there is a body of truth that transcends the concept of materialism, that cannot be measured in the usual scientific way, but that guides man in his finest relationships with his fellow men. The American schools have never capitalized to the fullest extent upon this body of truth. The mandate for the future is to remedy this mistake and to exert every effort to make youth moral, in the broadest possible sense.

"The cardinal virtue of a citizen in a democracy is self-control." To achieve such control requires that each individual be extended the opportunity to reach his maximum personal development. This development requires practice, but this practice must be based upon democratic methods of living. No longer can instruction attempt to go forth from the textbook or the teacher in a unilateral

manner. To develop citizens who are capable of self-control it is imperative that from the beginning they have the opportunity to develop such control in the "give and take" of democratic instruction. It is necessary that youth develop an understanding of the nature of group organization, of the relationship of the individual to his group, and of the power of group action. This does not mean that *method* alone will develop good citizens. It does mean that method and content must at least be coequals in the classroom.

Preparation for Change. The good citizen is not content merely to maintain the societal status quo. To do so negates the possibility of alleviating the wrongs that are present. Consequently, the good citizen is interested in constantly evaluating his society in order to know what modifications should be made in order to capitalize upon the achievements of men and to more closely approximate the ideals that the founders of the American democratic society envisioned for it. Such modification must always be preceded by reflective thought and processed by democratic action. Individuals who are indisposed to evaluate their way of living can only be classified as undemocratic. These individuals are content to live parasitically upon the efforts of those who have gone before. This is not the role for free men nor will it assist in the effort to constantly increase the dignity of all men. This argument is not new and was advanced in support of the Constitution of the United States of America by Hamilton in *The Federalist* as follows: ³

It has frequently been remarked that it seems to have been reserved to the people of this country, by their conduct and example, to decide the important question, whether societies of men are really capable or not of establishing good government from reflection and choice, or whether they are forever destined to depend for their political constitutions on accident and force. If there be any truth in the remark, the crisis at which we are arrived may with propriety be regarded as the era in which that decision is to be made; and a wrong election of the part we shall act may, in this view, deserve to be considered as the general misfortune of mankind.

This idea will add the inducements of philanthropy to those of patriotism, to heighten the solicitude which all considerate and good men must feel for the event. Happy will it be if our choice should be directed by a

³ Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, James Madison, *The Federalist*, No. 1, pp. 3, 4, Modern Library, Inc., New York, 1937.

judicious estimate of true interests, unperplexed and unbiased by considerations not connected with the public good. But this is a thing more ardently to be wished than seriously to be expected. The plan offered to our deliberations affects too many particular interests, innovates upon too many local institutions, not to involve in its discussion a variety of objects foreign to its merits, and of views, passions and prejudices little favorable to the discovery of truth.

In this quotation the basic principles that must guide the program of social development for young citizens in a democracy are again set forth. To recapitulate, it is necessary to (1) offer social learning experiences that stimulate our youth to be capable of *reflective thinking*; (2) offer experiences that develop *considerate and good men*—men who combine philanthropy with patriotism—in order that all might prosper; and (3) experiences that place a premium on *right decisions*—decisions that are based on a “judicious estimate of true interests, unperplexed and unbiased by considerations not connected with the public good.”

PRACTICE ACCOMPANYING KNOWLEDGE

Many teachers who desire to improve the learning experiences for the social development of youth are perplexed because they do not understand the nature of the inadequacies in their present programs. In response to such perplexion Melby states three points of failure: “(1) We have depended too heavily on mere knowledge; (2) We have neglected emotional zeal; and (3) We have been too much inclined to stay inside the school house with the result that we have accordingly failed to mobilize our community resources in their totality.”

Traditionally, too much emphasis has been placed on the memorization of various kinds of information without due regard to the methods by which youth may utilize this information to further their social development. Many teachers want to make their teaching more meaningful but are perplexed by the problem of how to do it. The following three examples illustrate how three different schools approached the solution to this problem.

Example 1: “A Living Experiment in Democracy.” Believing the conventional “developmental recitation” approach to be an inade-

¹ Ernest O. Melby, “The Challenge to Social Education,” *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 8, p. 135, December, 1950.

quate method of carrying out the accepted objectives of the social studies, the authors of this experiment decided to try a new approach. In American history classes that were approaching a unit on Achieving Greater Democracy in the United States, it was decided to advance as many as possible of the following objectives: ⁵

An understanding of

1. The interrelationship of political, economic, and social democracy.
2. The need for an enlightened electorate.
3. The need for education as a means of attaining fuller democracy.
4. The fact that criticism of undemocratic practices and institutions in America is not subversive or disloyal.
5. The role of the citizen in the framework of our whole society.
6. The need for action as a means of attaining fuller democracy.
7. The historical development of our democratic institutions and practices.

The skill, or ability to

1. Define the problems.
2. Collect and interpret information.
3. Reach tentative decisions based on sound inferences.
4. Act in accordance with the decision reached.
5. Express social data in oral and written form.
6. Understand social studies reading.
7. Use an encyclopedia.
8. Do committee work.
9. Take part in a discussion.
10. Use library facilities.
11. Locate references on a topic.
12. Read graphs and maps.
13. Prepare a good report.
14. Make a written report.
15. Make an oral report.

Attitudes, or the development of

1. An interest in people as individuals deserving of respect.
2. A recognition of the achievements in democracy through democratic practices and institutions in improving the welfare of the people.
3. A recognition of the abuses and undemocratic practices of our institutions, laws, and mores.
4. A willingness to place the public interest above vested interests.

⁵ David Platt and Aaron Lipton, "A Living Experiment in Democracy," *Improving Human Relations*, pp. 77-82, National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, Bulletin 25, Washington, D.C., November, 1949.

5. A willingness to advocate the improvement of democracy even at the expense of a small selfish group.
6. A willingness to work in groups and subordinate individualism to cooperation.

After securing permission to try the experiment, the general overall plan was explained to the students. This plan included: ⁶

1. A division of the group (138 students) into three main committees. (Each student was permitted to choose the group with which he desired to work.)
2. Two chairmen of each committee and a chairman for each sub-topic were elected.
3. Three periods of research time were scheduled, one in the library and two in the classroom.
4. Bibliographies, prepared in cooperation with the library staff, and the following outline distributed to the students:

POLITICAL DEMOCRACY

A. Civil Liberties

1. Limits on right of suffrage
2. Limits on freedom of thought
3. Threats to safety and security of the person
4. What should be done to improve the situation in these areas?

B. Political Parties

1. How do machine politics affect democracy?
2. Third parties (historical background and current data)
3. How can Congress be made more efficient and responsible?
4. To what extent have the major parties worked in behalf of the ordinary American since World War I?

C. Pressure Groups

1. How do lobbies function?
2. Whom do they represent?
3. Problems presented by lobbies to a democracy
4. How can they be regulated?

D. The Press

1. Who owns our press?
2. Do we have a free and responsible press?
3. How can our press be made more free and responsible?

E. Civil Service

1. Why is civil service necessary in a democracy?

⁶ *Ibid.*

2. Civil service (historical background since 1885)
3. How can our civil service system be improved?

ECONOMIC DEMOCRACY

- A. Standard of Living
 1. What is our real standard of living?
 2. What keeps our standard of living lower than it should be?
 3. How can we improve our standard of living?
- B. Monopoly and Democracy
 1. Effects of monopoly on democracy
 2. What should be done to curb monopolies?
- C. Full Employment
 1. What is full employment?
 2. Why don't we have continuous full employment?
 3. What has been done towards achieving full employment?
 4. What remains to be done?

SOCIAL DEMOCRACY

- A. Education
 1. The importance of education in democracy
 2. Handicaps to education for all
 3. What should be done to bring about a genuinely democratic educational system?
- B. Housing
 1. Importance of good housing in a democracy
 2. The housing situation today
 3. Obstacles which hinder adequate housing
 4. How can adequate housing be achieved?
- C. Public Health
 1. The public health situation today
 2. Obstacles which hinder better health
 3. Measures to improve the health of the people

Following the presentation of the outlines, organizational meetings were held in different parts of the room, and chairmen and subchairmen were elected. With the basic plan of organization established, the instructors directed the research, one in the library and the other in the classroom. The students were encouraged to make their own interpretations of the references and to use out-of-school sources. When the reference material had been analyzed and interpreted, it was written up and handed to the chairmen for correction.

The classes now assembled as units and decided to study the reports during the Christmas recess. Student volunteers stenciled the individual reports and assisted one of the teachers in mimeographing them for distribution. It was also decided that original charts, diagrams, cartoons, and drawings would be created to represent the information that had been obtained. Representative newspaper and magazine articles were also collected.

After the Christmas recess, the students were asked to evaluate the project to date. The following comments are typical: ⁷ "(1) Doing this type of research work makes the individual assume responsibility which he otherwise would not accept. (2) The method just used is probably the only mature method of procedure and learning that I have seen in high schools in recent years. (3) The ordinary method gives a colorless, dry account which gives to the pupils the facts of an incident without any of the sidelights, or the blood and guts. The new method allows the student to do his own research work and to make his own conclusions."

The clippings and drawings were now assembled as a bulletin-board display. Under the direction of the student chairman, each committee discussed its report. Following these discussion periods, these representative suggestions for improvement were presented: ⁸

1. More time for discussion.
2. More student participation in the discussion.
3. More extensive research.
4. More historical background material should be covered in the report.
5. To save time, the discussion should be led by the instructor.
6. The report (which had been assembled as a booklet) should be shorter.

As a result of the work done, the following suggested activities pertaining to a program for student participation in a democracy were made: ⁹

1. Make an adequate education available to all.
2. Take individual action against discrimination.
3. Participate in civic matters.
4. Abolish intolerance in our own social circles.
5. Sign petitions against undemocratic practices.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 82.

6. Write letters to Congressmen protesting, recommending, or commending action that has or has not been taken.
7. Conduct wide classroom discussions of problems to enlighten students.
8. Join organizations actively promoting democratic practices and institutions.
9. Practice democracy in and out of class.
10. Apply group pressure to supplant individual action.

The teachers involved in this experiment believed it was evident that the greater number of the students, who are a selected group, were usually motivated by a desire to do well on the New York Regents' Board examination, given at the end of the term. The typical comments that came forth in the student evaluation indicate that the students have realized a type of motivation that is much more significant.

Example 2. The second example concerns a school located in north Alabama in the foothills of the Appalachians. The school serves an area in which only white people have ever lived. "It is a consolidated school with an enrollment of about 850 students and a faculty of twenty-six teachers, including the principal."

CORE CLASSES STUDY RACE RELATIONS ¹⁰

For a number of years the school has had a flexible program, which enables any teacher who desires to do so to try core teaching in his classes. The first attempts at core work included only the more evident problems of the community whose reasonable solution seemed feasible within the school term.

About ten years ago one teacher of senior high students introduced a unit on The Negro. At that time only one Negro, a cook for a near-by family, lived anywhere near the school. Only a few of the students, coming in from other communities, had lived where there were Negro tenant farmers.

In a previous unit this class had made a survey of the county's economic status. Data about the county's only Negro community, on the opposite side of the county, had aroused the interest of the students. This led to a study of slavery in the South and questions inevitably began to arise concerning the place of the Negro in our society.

¹⁰ Opal Cooper, J. O. Hamner, and Robert Stewart, "Core Classes Study Race Relations," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 8, pp. 356-359, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, March, 1951.

Perhaps the most rewarding part of the study was a trip made by some members of the group to the one Negro school in the county. Reading of books, pamphlets and magazine articles led to many questions and much discussion, but the actual visit and the conversation with students and teachers in the Negro school proved of greatest value to the group. The trip included an interview with an ex-slave. He discussed with the students his former owner, the coming of his freedom, and his feeling about each phase of his life.

This trip led to many debates within the whole class. Final activity was an assembly program. The entire school shared in the summary. A decided change in attitude toward the Negro seemed to be evident on the part of many of the students.

During and after World War II, our student population changed rapidly. We found in our state and community in 1946 and 1947 bitter opposition by many to the enactment of a Civil Rights Bill.

A group of juniors, in their study of American democracy, decided to concentrate on Leading Problems of the South. In such a unit naturally the problem of Race Relations appeared near the top of the list. Other topics chosen were Conservation of Our Resources, Labor Unions, and Education.

But the most controversial topic of all was that of Race Relations. Student opinion, which represented almost wholly parent opinion, varied from one extreme to the other. The junior class, nevertheless, decided to find out what others had to say on both sides of this question. Our rooms by this time had been equipped with tables and chairs so that we could work in committees and come together in a group for purposes of sharing.

The description of this experiment continues with a discussion of the search for unbiased materials dealing with the topic of Race Relations. Topics of related interest were occasionally incorporated into the main theme, and the project temporarily closed when the students from the only Negro school in the county visited this white school and participated in a series of discussions. The general attitude of the whole class is summed up in the written reaction of the class chairman:¹¹

The Negroes who visited our school yesterday helped me to understand the Negro better. People with prejudice against the Negro have no logical or scientific basis for their attitude.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 359.

Following this statement, the author concludes with a very significant statement which develops the idea that in a democracy social problems must remain fluid as work toward their solution progresses: ¹²

Class members realized that their study had not finally solved one of the nation's most perplexing problems. But they felt that programs of this kind could surely point toward development of more helpful and hopeful attitudes for the future.

Example 3. The third example has been selected from a private school, the Verde Valley School, Sedona, Arizona.

MEXICO EXPEDITION ¹³

This year we made our third and longest trip to Mexico, both in terms of miles and days. In the last two years we explored the states of Chihuahua and Sonora, directly across the border. This year we decided to go deep into the interior to see the old colonial towns. We were twenty-eight days in the field and covered 4,000 miles. Forty of us traveled in four trucks. Ordinarily we camped out at night and cooked our meals over open fires. Most of the work of camp was done by the students. One of our seniors, —, organized the cooking, and —, another senior who has been in the school since it first opened three years ago, purchased supplies along the route of our travel and, of course, this she had to do in the Spanish language. All students had jobs; and they were so efficient that to cook a well-planned meal, to wash all the dishes, and to erect the bunks within an hour and a half after reaching a camp site was ordinary practice. The same was true in the morning. Within an hour and a half after "rising time" was called, we were usually rolling along south having had a good breakfast. I feel that tremendous credit must go to the students who by their attention to their jobs and close co-operation with each other made this possible.

Obviously, most schools cannot include a trip to Mexico in their programs for social development. But the idea of the school excursion can well be incorporated into the programs of most schools. Atyes makes the following statement concerning this method of teaching: ¹⁴

¹² *Ibid.*

¹³ "Mexico Expedition," *Newsletter*, Verde Valley School, Sedona, Ariz., June 1, 1951.

¹⁴ Henry C. Atyes, "The Excursion in Social Education," *Audio-visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, pp. 33, 34, Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1947.

The "going out" to seek new experiences—objects, persons, ideas—and to feel the heightened sense of living that accompanies the exploration of new fields is nothing more than an illustration of education through excursions. For the excursion, in the actual derivative sense of the word, means literally a "running out or forth" to meet—anything and everything which gives life meaning. Surely then, the excursion is not a new word, coined to designate a modern fad in education, but rather is a method as old as society itself. In the process of "Making Men," teachers and pupils have always gone out to seek and to find.

The three preceding examples serve the purpose of illustrating better methods of implementing the social developmental experiences for youth. In no instance do they de-emphasize the importance of content, but in each instance they emphasize the importance of making content meaningful. For example, the unilateral method of instruction in which the teacher seeks merely to impart information is clearly de-emphasized. In its place, a premium is placed upon student activity under teacher direction. In Example 1, the teachers tried to (1) interrelate information and understandings that logically belong together; (2) offer the students an experience in choice making, cooperative endeavor, and individual and cooperative evaluation; and (3) embellish the content with a great amount of the interesting material that can always be associated with social studies.

In Example 2, the students were encouraged to (1) make an entire county their laboratory for social study; (2) consider live problems which are always interesting to living students; (3) learn through the stimulating process of group interaction; and (4) evaluate their learning.

In Example 3, the learning laboratory became international; work experience, individual planning, and group cooperation became essential to the success of the program. By using more than one language for communication and by directly observing another culture, these students had a meaningful experience in intercultural education.

Learning experiences of this type can be quite elaborate or very simple. The reader will recall that in the preceding chapter an example was presented of a teacher who used a Chilean boy as a resource person to implement a program of intercultural education. From this beginning, she also utilized the idea of pupil planning and employed excursions to help her pupils have meaningful experiences. These methods are possible and when they are used it is

no longer necessary to consider method and content separately because they become important and inseparable equals.

SOCIAL SCIENCES AND SOCIAL STUDIES

In many secondary schools the emphasis is still upon the teaching of the social sciences, history, geography, sociology, etc., rather than upon the social studies. Actually, the social studies are drawn from the social sciences but are so integrated as to form a new type of subject field. The unifying similarity between those experiences that are selected for integration is that they are focused upon human beings and institutions, their successes, failures, and resultant problems.

Implications of the Social Studies. It has been stated that the major problem confronting the world is a problem of human relationships. Basically, this is a problem of understanding the immediate group in which one lives and then the community, state, nation, and world. It is necessary for each individual to have a concept of citizenship that enables him to be an efficient participating member of the groups with which he is associated. Knowledge alone will not help the individual accomplish this purpose, for he might be a skilled mathematician, botanist, or physiologist and still be very inadequate socially. Therefore, it is of paramount importance that all individuals have experiences that provide them with the opportunity to participate intelligently in group life. A major function of the social studies is to provide all individuals with such experiences.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Those who teach the social studies turn to the social sciences for their subject matter. It is not the purpose of these teachers to alter the social sciences, but it is necessary for them to change their approach and to bring together the complementing elements from each. This being true, it is necessary to consider some possible new interpretations that can be applied to selected areas of social science.

History. In public schools history is usually classified as local, state, national, or world. This arrangement permits youth to begin with that which is most readily apparent and to proceed toward that which is less familiar. However, there is the danger that when history is so divided, students may receive only partial learnings and may never have the opportunity to bring together historical events

and persons that naturally belong together. In addition, when history is so divided, it is usually taught in a straight chronological manner, and the student does not have the opportunity to enrich his present life and improve his future by capitalizing upon the patterns of the past. And again, when history is taught in this manner, it is usually of the "drum and trumpet" variety, which is in opposition to the trend to socialize history. For example, the modern teacher of history is more interested in previous patterns of social cooperation, the development of the "labor movement," the influence of religion and education upon the life of the people, and the continuous expansion of the frontiers of the world. This is in contrast to the previous tremendous emphasis upon wars, the maintenance of selected dynasties, and electoral campaigns.

The modern approach is illustrated in an article by Dumond entitled "The Mississippi: Valley of Decision."¹⁵

The revolution in human institutions, from which emerged our democratic way of life, began with the religious nonconformity of the Reformation and reached its climax in America in 1776. The spirit of nonconformity in religious belief had spread to intellectual conviction and political opinion; and, little by little, the bonds by which virtue, freedom, and truth had been so long enthralled had been loosened by men who prized liberty above bread and truth above life. Their ideas and their logic constituted a formidable body of liberal thought with which every well-read man in America was familiar. Among such men was Thomas Jefferson, four generations removed from the Old World.

Endowed with a brilliant intellect, steeped in the great classics of speculative thought, and inspired by inflexible faith in man as a rational being, Jefferson sifted the intellectual heritage of his generation for principles harmonious to the indigenous growth of America. Other men might argue the fine points of taxation, of parliamentary authority, of royal prerogatives—not he. Gifted with a literary craftsmanship unequalled in his generation, and passionately devoted to the cause of human freedom, he cleft asunder all the devious threads of constitutionalism within the Empire, and in three short sentences laid the solid foundations of the first permanent revolutionary government in the history of the world: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That

¹⁵ Dwight L. Dumond, "The Mississippi: Valley of Decision," *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Vol. 36, pp. 3, 4, June, 1949.

to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundations on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness."

Eleven years later the Founding Fathers enshrined in the Constitution the equally great principle of a fundamental law which the government must obey. And when they had added the First Amendment, individual man not only possessed inalienable rights superior to all government, but the government was specifically restrained from interfering with the free development and expression of his thoughts, feelings, and beliefs. Similar restraints upon state governments were placed in all the state constitutions except that of New Jersey, and in the constitutions of all states subsequently admitted to the Union.

Here, in the opening paragraphs of this article, distinct human and social factors are introduced. In the modern world in which all Christian nations are directing their resources to the end of raising the level of human dignity through the extension of the democratic way of life, it is imperative that youth be extended the opportunity to examine and evaluate continuing changes in "human institutions." Such an opportunity cannot be extended through a narrow consideration of the present alone. It is likewise not readily evident when historical exploration is limited to a consideration of the wars that have been fought and of the personal strivings of certain "high-powered" individuals. On the other hand, when youth have the opportunity to consider such things as the "revolution in human institutions," the implications of religious nonconformity, the intellectual heritage that belongs to them, and the developing destruction of the bonds which in some places still restrain virtue, freedom, and truth, they are having experiences that will prepare them to be socially efficient members of a democratic society.

There is a challenging emotional quality in the statements that have been quoted from the great national documents of the United States of America. In an intelligent way these quotations should challenge the best that youth has to offer. When youth consider such documents, they are in part studying the science of government. When they analyze the statement, "Thomas Jefferson, four genera-

tions removed from the Old World," attention is being focused on human geography; to understand people we must understand the cultures in which they developed.

To fully capitalize upon history and the social sciences related to it, it is necessary to consider another example. In his arguments in support of the Constitution of the United States of America, Alexander Hamilton maintained that it has been reserved to the people of this country to decide the question of whether or not men are really capable of maintaining free government through reflective thought and choice. The historical record indicates that Christian men living together in a democratic society can, through reflection and choice, so plan their lives that each succeeding generation can more nearly approximate the realization of the great tenets of human freedom and dignity. However, there is no magic that can transform youth into adults capable of accepting the inspiring challenge posed by these tenets. There is, likewise, no subject matter that can be routinely memorized with the result that this transformation will be complete. Quite to the contrary. For youth to accept the challenge of living democratically, they must be so educated. Such education requires that they not only acquire certain fundamental knowledge and skills but that they also have opportunities to use these skills and apply the knowledge to living situations that are for them realistic. Such opportunities mandate that curriculums composed of isolated facts be abolished and, in this instance, that social experiences that naturally belong together be brought together.

Sociology. Traditionally, the abnormal aspects of human institutions have received too much emphasis. In the modern world which knows so much turmoil it is important to stress normal functioning. This does not mean that the abnormal, the derelict, or the cancerous should not be considered; it does mean that they should be seen in their proper perspective to the whole of society.

Any study of social problems could well begin with the family group, which is familiar to most youth and basic to the democratic way of life. Within this group problems are always present, some of only immediate importance and others that have far-reaching consequences. It is this group that provides infants with the care they need in order to survive and children with the opportunities they must have to develop into competent adult citizens.

If the democratic society is to continue, youth must understand the functions of the basic family group. Following birth into a family, youth mature and eventually create new families. Thus, they must develop an understanding of inter- as well as intrafamily relationships. The problem of marriage, including such things as earning a living, the management of money, and child care, is of importance to secondary-school students. To consider these problems of social living it is necessary to turn to the social science of economics and the biological sciences as well as to sociology. This provides another example of the necessity for modern teachers of social studies to be able to turn to many areas of learning in order to select the experiences that are needed to adequately direct the social development of youth.

Youth must be competent to cope with the intangible as well as the tangible problems of family living. These include such things as courtship and marriage, death, depression, or the anticipation of compulsory military training. The extent of the school's responsibility to meet such problems is a debatable question. The education of youth is a responsibility of the entire community. All organizations responsible for such education should strive for a closer correlation of their activities. Correlation of this type will tend to eliminate needless duplication of effort and will ensure the meeting of a greater proportion of all youth problems.

Any consideration of the family group involves psychological as well as economic and sociological considerations. In part, these are set forth in the following quotation from *Education for Family Life*:¹⁶

It has been observed that nothing in our social, economic, or political life can happen without some repercussions upon the family. This can be illustrated by citing the position of the adolescent in the family today, where the age-long conflict between adolescents and parents has been made more difficult by the fact that youth are forced to remain at home long after they are ready and eager to leave. With no jobs available young men and women are continuing to live at home and go to school several years longer than they did before the depression, so that their period of dependence upon the family, both financially and personally, is pro-

¹⁶ *Education for Family Life*, p. 52, Nineteenth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1941.

longed. This situation has created much turmoil and difficulty in families, both in the cities and in the rural areas where conditions are especially acute because so many farms will not yield enough for adults and grown children.

While the schools should not be expected to reform all social and economic conditions, there is a real opportunity for them to provide in their educational program something that would make this enforced dependence of adolescents less difficult for them and for their families. If these years of schooling can be made more meaningful for youth, especially in helping them gain better understanding and orientation for the tasks of adult living, rather than merely increasing their store of academic knowledge, what is now considered a social problem might be converted into an occasion for real educational advancement.

It is often difficult for youth to understand why they must remain at home long after they are ready and eager to leave. At times, it must seem as though all society were arrayed against them and their desires. It is necessary that they have learning experiences that help them develop an understanding of the constantly changing nature of society and of why these changes take place. In addition, it is imperative that they have experiences that directly help them to adjust to and find their place in this society.

As youth gain adult status and become employed working members of society, they will continue to have much leisure time. When this fact is considered, the problem of their previous "enforced idleness" can be seen in a broader perspective. This perspective reveals that leisure-time problems do not end with the gaining of adult status. To the contrary, this problem is first intensified during the years of secondary schooling but it literally persists until death. A democracy cannot remain strong if youth or adults seek meaningless types of entertainment and distractions that are at their worst demoralizing and at their best trivial. The years in school should be used in part to help youth understand the importance of developing stimulating, possible, and socially acceptable types of leisure-time pursuits.

Social Response to Technology. If man is to make the maximum use of the marvelous advances that have been made in the fields of science and technology, he must become increasingly more enlightened. This enlightenment can be implemented only by a more effective educational program. The mere acquisition of more knowl-

edge is not enough. Youth must also understand the implications of this knowledge for the creation of a better world and develop the skills and attitudes that are needed to apply it.

More and more, free people are appreciating the importance of narrowing the gap between scientific technological achievements and social advancements. This problem is stated in the following manner in *American Education and International Tensions*:¹⁷

Just after the First World War, H. G. Wells wrote his now familiar dictum that civilization is "a race between education and catastrophe." The race has been a long one, for the problem of adjusting social institutions to the changing world created by science and technology is as old as civilization itself. Since man appeared on this planet, his shrewd mind and clever fingers have never ceased to pry at the doors of knowledge and to harness the forces of nature. There is nothing new in the fact that social institutions lag behind mechanical and scientific advancement. Though we steadily expand the area of what we know about the universe, the limits of that knowledge remain, as always, infinitely removed and endlessly attractive. Up to now, the process of social change has moved onward too, always lagging dangerously far behind, often catching up at the last breathless moment. Recent scientific developments, among which the discovery of ways to control the release of atomic energy is the most dramatic, do not pose a new problem. They do put a severe limit on the time allowed for the social response.

To decrease the duration and the distance of the lag of social adaptation is a matter of clear importance to educational policy. The fact that this is an old problem, although now appearing in a new, dramatic, and urgent form, does not lessen its importance. It is obviously desirable to develop the clearest possible understanding of the general nature of scientific development and of social change. The ability and the willingness to apply this knowledge to specific current social conditions are equally important. In a society that grants universal suffrage, these insights, abilities and drives should be developed through education to the greatest possible degree among the total population.

Americans are dedicated to the proposition that free men are capable of controlling their own behavior and that through "reflection and choice" they can constantly improve their way of living. To accept the privilege of "universal suffrage" intelligently, youth

¹⁷ *American Education and International Tensions*, pp. 27, 28, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1949.

must be educated from the beginning to understand their society, their place in it, and their responsibilities to it.

Economics. For youth to have the richest possible social developmental experiences it is necessary to draw extensively from the science of economics. These experiences should not be limited by building them around impersonal, topical units such as "money," "supply and demand," or "price fixing." These topics are fine as far as they go, but to many students they are unmeaningful because they do not understand the relationship between economic theory and their personal problems. If the science of economics is to contribute to the social-studies program, it must be modified in such a way that students will be able to make direct applications of what they study to their problems of living. One way to bring about such a modification is to analyze the business activities of the secondary-school student population.

COMMON BUSINESS ACTIVITIES ¹⁸

It is correct to state that every normal individual is essentially a miniature business institution. As such, he faces in one form or the other practically all of the problems of any typical business organization. As the consumer he buys a great variety of goods and services. Unless a dependent, he sells, either directly or indirectly, his personal services. He has the problem of selecting the kinds of insurance that will protect him or his dependents against the risks to which either is subject. The need for saving and the problem of investing are no less important for the individual than they are for a business concern. The keeping of records (book-keeping) by an individual and their use in the successful management of the business affairs of a personal or family nature are just as essential for an individual as they are for a corporation. Man's relationship to man through law governs the business practices of the individual. Finally, the individual must maintain satisfactory human relations in his manifold personal business relations if he is to be successful.

It is not possible within the limits of this preliminary report to list in detail the great variety of business activities common to most people, their frequency of performance, or their relative difficulty. A few examples of these activities will be given to indicate their wide range and show their importance in the life of the individual, the family, and the community. Business becomes a part of the life of a child at a very early age. When he

¹⁸ Herbert M. Freeman, *Basic Business Education for Everyday Living*, pp. 13, 14, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1951.

receives and accounts for a weekly allowance, makes his first purchases at a neighborhood store, becomes the beneficiary of a life insurance policy insuring funds for his education, or is taught personal thrift by depositing small coins in a "piggy bank," his business activities and practices become the vital concern of his parents.

The business activities of youth are shown to be many, varied, and complex. Business is an important part of the life of a youth when he buys a wide range of goods and services, some of which are purchased on account or on an installment basis; when he accepts employment, even on a part-time basis, and has an income of his own; when he opens a checking account with a bank, when he uses any of the other many services of a bank, or when he buys a government bond or other securities in his program of saving; when he finances the purchase of his first automobile and faces the risks and liabilities that such ownership involves; and when he buys an insurance policy that is suited to his present needs and will fit into future plans.

When youth assumes the responsibilities of an adult, his business activities increase in number, difficulty, and complexity. This is particularly true when a person becomes a partner in a family unit. The family is pre-eminently a business institution. Whether a person rents or buys a home, he has the problems of selecting and financing household supplies and equipment and of choosing an insurance program to cover the numerous risks of the family. If a person buys a home, his problems of making a selection, financing the purchase, budgeting the payments, meeting numerous legal requirements, and of carrying the right kind and amount of personal and property insurance increase in number and difficulty. Most families deal with banks, insurance companies, and other financial institutions. The careful husbanding of resources and the wise investment of savings are business activities of profound concern to the family. In addition to these few examples, adults enter into other multitudinous transactions and relationships of a business nature. All these business activities involve problems and decisions that are not exceeded in difficulty and far-reaching importance by those of any business institution or organization. Wrong business practices, untrained judgment, and unwise decisions in dealing with the business affairs of a personal and family nature may be and frequently are disastrous to the individual and tragic for his family. Consequently, education for everyday business competency for everyone is one of the most vital and most indispensable parts of the education for living for all American youth.

Some teachers are of the opinion that "business experiences" should have little or no place in the social-studies program. This

feeling is generated by the belief that many social-studies teachers are inadequately prepared in this area. Unquestionably, there is some ground for this belief. However, those who advocate the deletion of "basic business" from the social-studies program are approaching the problem negatively. It should not be assumed that any one teacher needs to be an absolute master of all social sciences in order to effectively teach the social studies. In addition, "basic business" can be much more meaningful when it is integrated with those aspects of jurisprudence, sociology, and geography, with which it naturally belongs.

When youth begin to understand the need for competence in the management of their personal affairs, they are beginning to develop a background that will help them appreciate the importance of group as well as personal economics.

Prosperity and Education. Prosperity accompanied by a higher income is a goal of all nations. Many things can be done to help countries raise their income level. For example, it is possible to (1) train labor to be more effective; (2) improve the working relationships between labor and management; (3) encourage wise use and control of natural resources; (4) modernize machinery and factory buildings, and improve all transportation services; (5) evaluate the effectiveness of advertising; and (6) stimulate research of all kinds. Basic to the success of all these procedures is that of raising the educational level of the people. This is another illustration of the reason why the curriculum for the modern secondary school should have a strong social emphasis. Technical and scientific experiences are necessary but they alone will not suffice to prepare youth who will be competent to reduce the distance between technological achievements and social advancements. The program for directing the learning of youth so that they become economically self-directive cannot be confined to the social studies alone. Economic experiences offered in the social studies are intended to help youth develop an economic point of view rather than to make them economics specialists.

In a specialized sense areas such as mathematics, home economics, science, fine arts and industrial arts, or business education all make unique contributions to the program for economic sufficiency. Unfortunately, the contributions from these areas are often too segregated to actually be meaningful.

Geography. This area is not always classified with the social sciences. Its relationship to the social studies is important enough to deserve emphasis. The modern emphasis in geography is to help youth understand the relationship of man to his world. Facts about the earth and its surfaces and the relationship of other planets to it are still studied, but the emphasis is upon the importance of each individual understanding this relationship in order that his contacts with other individuals will be more humane.

Obviously, the social studies must include some experiences from the area of geography. As man becomes more conscious of the reality of the interdependence of all men, it is necessary for him to be able to accurately visualize the earth's surface and to have a proper perspective of the distance between various places. The need for such consciousness is being emphasized by what is commonly called "air age" or "global geography."

Social Development through Geography. In geography, as in all things, it is well to begin with the known and proceed to the unknown. Thus, experiences in this area should eventually give youth a basic understanding of their world but should begin with the local community, expand to the nation, etc.

This procedure is illustrated by the following series of unit headings. Our State: Its People, Natural Resources, Industries, and Government. Introducing America: Our State Is One Distinct but Integral Part. America: Big and Beautiful, Its People Engaged in Many Occupational and Leisure-time Activities, Citizenship. Introducing the World: Its People, Natural Resources, Industries, and Governments. America's Place in the World.

With very little imagination, it is possible to study this series of titles and visualize the social-studies trends that have received emphasis throughout the last two chapters. For example, the major purpose of the social studies is to promote the social development of youth. To accomplish this purpose it is necessary for youth to understand the changing relationships of men to each other and to the physical world in which they live. As horizons are expanded the concept of the interdependency of men becomes real and vivid.

Before men can understand each other they must have some notion of the types of societies in which men live. It is also necessary to understand complications that arise (1) from the use of many different mediums of exchange; (2) because of the relationships of various

peoples of the world to their governments; (3) because of the unequal distribution of natural resources; (4) from the existence of many different levels of technological advance; and (5) from unfortunate misunderstandings of the American democratic way of life.

To develop understandings such as those indicated above is a very challenging task. No one teacher can do the job alone. An effective social-studies program requires close cooperation between many teachers. The program must be continually experimental, and evaluation must be constant.

SUMMARY

In a very broad but real sense the primary function of the secondary school is to so educate youth that they will be active, responsible, and well-informed citizens. In some measure every subject area ordinarily assigned to the secondary level contributes to this development. Many interpretations exist concerning the word "citizen." It is important that these interpretations be clarified and that a definition about which there is general approval be formulated.

America continues to possess the unique privilege of determining whether or not man is really capable of governing himself through acts of reflective thought followed by objective choice making. To be capable of these acts requires the education of a citizenry capable of being self-directive. An educational program built entirely around isolated "subjects" and emphasizing "memorization" is not sufficient for the education of such individuals. In the modern school it is necessary to create real, live experiences that afford youth the opportunity to explore and evaluate the complications of self-direction.

The field of social studies has been designed to help youth solve their common social problems and to develop their social awareness. These studies draw heavily upon the social sciences. The material, activities, or experiences that are drawn from the various areas of social science should be so closely integrated that they actually form a new field.

The emphasis in the social sciences is changing. In the modern school the relationship is social in nature and involves primarily human institutions, their creators, their interrelationships, and their normal functions.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Discuss the precautions the teacher should take before directing the discussion of controversial issues in the classroom.
2. To what extent should citizenship be based upon emotional qualities?
3. Construct an inventory of types of learning situations in which youth have opportunities to develop the ability of self-control and to be intelligently self-directive.
4. Discuss the obstacles that cause many social-studies teachers to refrain from planning extensive field trips. What suggestions can you offer that will help overcome these obstacles? What steps can you take to put these suggestions into practice in your school community?
5. Explain how you reach the conclusion that a field trip or school excursion is the next step that should be taken in order to make learning most effective.
6. How should an administrator determine the amount of secondary-school time to be assigned to the social studies? To the various social sciences?
7. Describe the methods you have used most effectively in directing students while they study great American documents such as the Declaration of Independence. How did you evaluate the effectiveness of your methods?
8. What should you know about your school community before planning an area of learning entitled Home and Family Life Education?
9. What evidence indicates that a gap exists between scientific and technological achievements and social advancements?
10. Explain the procedures you use to help youth develop an understanding of comparative societies.

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Chapter 8. ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC AND SCIENCE

Science and arithmetic have contributed such a large measure to the continuing development of human history that it is impossible to understand history without developing competence in these areas.

When arithmetic and science are specifically related to the social developmental program for children, they are considered to be more than specific sets of skills and facts. They become methods of scientific, quantitative, and qualitative thinking that offer better ways to solve problems. The persistent drive toward precision that characterizes science, and the challenge of the abstract that develops with progression in arithmetic, can contribute much to the development of the ability to think critically. Children develop this ability at different rates of speed and reach different maximums. Learning in respect to these areas should be as functional as possible and must always be a challenge to intelligence rather than to memory.

GROWTH IN APPRECIATION

Science and arithmetic are involved in all that children do. From the time that they arise in the morning until they go to bed at night, their lives are affected by the existence of scientific phenomena. These phenomena exist only because science and arithmetic have been so closely allied that it is difficult if not foolish to try to separate them. Thus, children start on their way to school and make statements such as: "It rained yesterday, but it is much colder and will probably snow today"; "We were in Florida and it never snows there"; "The draft on our furnace stuck and it was cold in our house last night"; "How many girls are there in your room at school"; "Our teacher bought a bushel of apples for our room"; "How many apples are there in a bushel?"

Hundreds of examples indicative of the curious nature of boys and girls can be assembled in any school. These examples can be used

to create learning situations in which children have the opportunity to gain experience in precise thinking.

Children should not consider radio, television, automobiles, airplanes, toasters, or medicines as things with which their generation has fortunately been endowed. They should develop a profound appreciation for the people, the materials, and the arithmetical and scientific processes that have made these things possible. In addition, they should be motivated to develop whatever ability they have in these areas in order that they may contribute to the advancement of their rich heritage.

Little lectures or stories about "appreciation" for the usefulness of arithmetic or the wonders of science are not enough. Situations must be created or capitalized upon in which children definitely use numbers to solve problems that are impeding the progress of their activities. Children must be helped to realize the significance of such things as the manufacturing process that goes on in a green leaf. As the child begins to understand the importance of "numbers" in his world and learns the truth about "green plants," his appreciation will develop. The teacher must be enthusiastic and appreciative and must always have the development of appreciation as an objective.

DEVELOPING THE PROGRAM

In the teaching of arithmetic and science, the development of *meaning* has become a primary concern. Arithmetic and science are interrelated systems of knowledge, ideas, and skills which are continually expanding. If children are to expand their interests, knowledge, and ability in these areas, they must begin with the numerical and scientific aspects of situations that are familiar to them. If the learning situation is familiar to the children, the teacher should determine how functional it is in their lives. If the tests of familiarity and functionality are both passed, the children can be directed to explore situations that are new for them. As these new situations are explored, growth will occur and the world of the familiar and possible will be constantly expanded.

There are eight general principles that should guide the construction of the program for science and arithmetic.

1. The program for science and arithmetic must be adjusted to the pupil, not the pupil to the program.

2. The teacher should attempt to captivate pupil interest through the correct allocation of "content" to the various levels.
3. Careful consideration should always be given to the mental, emotional, social, and physical capacity of each child.
4. A diversified program is necessary in order to meet the varied background experiences of all pupils.
5. All new concepts must be introduced gradually in order that meaning can keep pace with such introductions.
6. The program must be continuous and gradually intensified at each succeeding level.
7. In order to develop self-confidence each pupil must have many opportunities to work independently, and in small groups, at tasks that require him to use the skills he is developing.
8. The program for science and arithmetic must never be separated from the other areas of growths, *e.g.*, language arts and social development.

Basic principles are helpful to the extent that they guide and stimulate the teacher's thinking as he plans learning experiences for and with his pupils. In the conventional school too much emphasis is frequently placed upon the sheer acquisition of facts, and little attention is given to methods of utilizing them to develop the ability to think precisely in real-life situations. By some magical process it is assumed that the pupils will be able to utilize facts memorized in an artificial situation in the solution of the problems of living. In the modern school the importance of facts and skills is not minimized, but situations are created in which they become the means, or tools, of solving problems that have meaning for children. The function of the school is to educate the children, not to preserve through memory a hierarchy of classified, meaningless information.

OBJECTIVES FOR SCIENCE AND ARITHMETIC

When planning a curriculum it is always necessary to establish reasons for including the many types of experiences of which it will eventually be composed. These reasons are most frequently stated as objectives, purposes, or aims for the particular experience or area being considered. In Chap. 1 selected statements of objectives for the complete educational program were presented. When any part of

this program is considered separately, it must be seen in its proper relationship to the whole. The objectives which follow have been selected because an analysis of them reveals this relationship.

Elementary Science. Blough and Huggett establish four objectives (intentions) for teaching science in the elementary school: ¹

1. The study of science should help girls and boys come to know some generalizations or big meanings or science principles which they can use in solving problems in their environment.

2. The study of science should help pupils to grow in ability to solve problems effectively.

3. The study of science should develop in children a scientific attitude. The characteristics of a scientifically minded person are:

He is open-minded—willing to change his mind in the face of reliable evidence—and he respects another's point of view.

He looks at a matter from every side before he draws a conclusion. He does not jump to conclusions or decide on the basis of one observation; he deliberates until he is sure.

He goes to reliable sources for his evidence. He challenges sources to make sure they are reliable.

He is not superstitious; he realizes that nothing happens without some cause.

He is curious. He is careful and accurate in his observations. He plans his investigations carefully.

4. The study of science should create in children an interest in and an appreciation for the world in which they live.

When the area of elementary science is examined with objectives such as these as guides, the value of the area can readily be understood. This does not mean that all children need the same types of science experiences. It does mean that they all need experiences that will promote the closest possible approximation of these objectives by each child.

Arithmetic. In the modern school, meaning has become one of the major concerns in the teaching of arithmetic. Arithmetical concepts are being developed by providing pupils with many experiences in lifelike situations. Children are encouraged to learn from each other

¹ Glenn O. Blough and Albert J. Huggett, *Elementary School Science and How to Teach It*, pp. 13-22, The Dryden Press, Inc., New York, 1951.

as well as from the teacher—learning becomes multilateral rather than unilateral. Drill no longer dominates the program, but enough drill is included to ensure mastery.

Eight objectives which illustrate the direction of the modern arithmetic program are presented in *The Elementary Course of Study for Pennsylvania*:²

Instruction in arithmetic should:

1. Contribute to good character growth through the provision of activities which will develop personal and social habits, such as economy, fair play, sharing in the home, school, and at play, good judgment, and cooperation.
2. Develop logical thinking and reasoning which will enable the child to use skills intelligently in the everyday situations he encounters.
3. Develop an appreciation of how numbers have facilitated human progress, and of the social significances of arithmetic in the affairs of life. There could have been, for example, no radio without a knowledge of numbers.
4. Develop concepts and vocabulary basic to quantitative thinking.
5. Develop an appreciation of the habit of expressing quantitative relations in precise language.
6. Develop understanding, accuracy, and mastery of the essential skills in computation and number manipulations.
7. Develop right attitudes, interests, and mastery to form a proper background for continued interest in and use of mathematics.
8. Develop an inquiring attitude of mind through the use of problems for which the pupil must seek basic facts and numbers in encyclopedias, census reports, newspapers, and basic books in the content fields.

Synthesis of the Objectives for Science and Arithmetic. The preceding list of objectives seems to have much in common with those for science; therefore, it is interesting to combine the common elements into a simple statement that will serve both areas. Planned experiences in arithmetic and science should help girls and boys:

1. To develop the ability to think effectively.
2. To develop the ability to apply scientific principles to, and to use arithmetical skills in, solving the problems in their environment.
3. To develop an inquiring, scientific attitude.

² *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 298, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 233-B, Harrisburg, Pa., 1949.

4. To develop an intelligent respect for others.
5. To develop an interest in, and appreciation for, the world in which they live and for the processes which have facilitated human progress in it.

These objectives for science and arithmetic can basically be applied to all other fields in the elementary school. To be sure, it would be necessary to substitute "other names" wherever "science" and "arithmetic" appear—but the objectives would apply. It is also necessary to remember that each child must acquire a certain amount of mastery in each field before he can have a satisfying personal learning experience in it.

ELEMENTARY EXPERIENCES IN ARITHMETIC

The skills, attitudes, and appreciations that are developed through an arithmetic program are integrated as children progress from day to day. Arithmetical procedures introduced at one grade level are not immediately forgotten when the child advances. Instead, each procedure is retained, and the concepts surrounding it are progressively enlarged. When the program is analyzed, it is obvious that the basic procedures are carefully spaced and repeated throughout. Thus, the concept that these procedures are not merely memorized but are built upon the base of many direct experiences becomes more realistic. This spacing facilitates the use of small groups in the teaching of arithmetic and enables the teacher to make more adequate provision for the unique problems of each child.

Arithmetic develops from the fundamental processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The program leads gradually to the use of these processes in the solving and interpreting of problems involving measurement, graphs, precision, charts, equations, and elementary statistical principles. These processes can be thought of as a volume of dull, uninteresting facts and manipulations. The alert teacher will not think of them this way but will bring them to life by (1) directly applying them to a variety of practical pupil problems and interests; (2) employing them to develop careful thinking about social problems and situations; and (3) using them to aid in the development of skill in predicting outcomes or habits of making intelligent generalizations.

The Primary Division. The great majority of the children in the first year of school are approximately six years old, in general good health, and somewhere within the range of normal intelligence. With varying degrees of competence, these children can participate happily and profitably in experiences in which arithmetical concepts are involved in the following ways:

1. Identifying schoolrooms by number.
2. Number of page on which story begins.
3. Home telephone number.
4. Street or rural route number of your home.
5. Number of people in your family.
6. Number of children who want "white" milk.
7. Number of children needed for various game activities.
8. Number of chairs needed for story period.
9. Number of hobbies represented in their group.
10. Who is tallest?
11. How far is it to the fire station?
12. Half of our group will have their physical examination.
13. What time do we visit the second grade?
14. When is Thanksgiving?
15. How much do the rabbits eat each day?
16. How much do the rabbits drink each day—quart, pint, etc.?
17. Shall we stack cans like pyramids in our store?
18. Join hands and form a circle.
19. The radio program is on the air at four o'clock.
20. You will find it at 1230 on the dial.
21. How much will it cost?
22. I will give you 5 cents change.
23. Someone bring the ruler.
24. The ruler isn't long enough, will someone bring the yardstick?
25. We need twelve spoons. We need a dozen spoons.

The preceding list merely represents examples of situations in which the teacher can capitalize upon problem situations in order to develop arithmetical concepts. Unfortunately, some critics of more modern educational programs quickly assume that situations such as these represent the only attempt to teach arithmetic. Such is not the case, for effective primary teachers fully realize the necessity for a planned program of instruction that, with some variations, will

Suggested Activities

ARITHMETIC FLOW CHART

1	Counting								Counting – learn arithmetical terms orally. Develop meaning for each number (1–10) before introducing the simplest addition and subtraction.
2	Addition	Subtraction							Continue the development of meaning and introduce addition and subtraction. Tell time and measure.
3			Multiplication	Division					Carrying in addition and borrowing in subtraction. Introduce multiplication and division.
4					Fractions introduced				Emphasize multiplication and division. Introduce common fractions. Liquid measures. Emphasize use of money in problems and examples.
5									Emphasize multiplication. Two-figure divisors. Informal geometry. Roman numerals. Decimal number system.
6						Percentage introduced			Decimal number system. Addition and subtraction of like fractions. Line, bar, and picture graphs. Many processes with common fractions. Introduce percentage
7									Careful review of fractions and decimals. Emphasize percentage. Emphasize graphs, charts, and the "geometry about us." Emphasize math of home and business.

tend to follow the chart on page 161. In addition, the effective teacher knows that arithmetical skills become most meaningful when they are used in situations that are real and alive for the students. Such teachers are always searching for opportunities to make their work meaningful and effective.

Problem solving should be constantly emphasized in the arithmetic program. Through the careful utilization of everyday situations, it is possible for the primary teacher to develop concepts concerning time, weights and measures, money, budgeting, and common geometric figures. Arithmetical experiences that involve the home, store, church, school, movies, hobbies, etc., should always be solicited in order to formulate problems that are related to child life. When this type of approach is used, textbooks guide rather than limit learning.

A vocabulary of words and meanings must be constantly developed in the area of arithmetic. The child's growth at school will depend to a large extent upon the development of such a vocabulary. The effective teacher constantly checks the development of *words* and *meanings*. Words such as the following are representative of the type of vocabulary development associated with the primary division:

sum	product	dividend
minuend	odd	unit
equal	minus	subtraction
hundreds	multiply	temperature
circle	even	add
weight	height	width

The Intermediate Division. Generally speaking, boys and girls in this division are between the ages of nine and twelve. During these years children change very rapidly. The effective teacher must be aware of the changes that are occurring, must help direct them into socially acceptable patterns, and utilize them whenever possible in all learning experiences.

Grouping within a room should continue as a fundamental characteristic of good teaching. These groups must be continuously evaluated, and regrouping should take place when there is a need for it. Despite the emphasis on small-group work, it is desirable to teach the class as a whole for specific purposes such as drill on various numerical combinations or the evaluation of general reading problems.

The arithmetical experiences at this level should be closely integrated with all activities created to promote the social development of the children.

By referring to the chart on page 161 it is easy to trace the continuation of the basic processes through the school years. During the intermediate division the situations in which these processes are employed will become increasingly more mature. Thus in the intermediate division an increased emphasis is placed on the use of money; additional applications of the use of fractions are employed; Roman numerals, percentage, the decimal number system, "informal" geometry, and line, bar, and picture graphs are introduced. Obviously, it is impossible to identify the exact time when any of these topics will appear. The needs and nature of the children at the various levels in different schools should be used to determine the time of introduction. In order to maintain a workable sequence of activities, it is always necessary to space the various topics throughout the different levels. Before a topic is introduced at any level, the teacher must be sure that the children have developed the proper attitude toward, and adequate mastery of, all skills necessary for the successful consideration of it. It is unrealistic to expect any child or group of children to have meaningful school experiences as long as a prescribed number of days are allotted to each activity. The variation in ability at any grade level is so great that a schedule can only be indicative of the sequence to be followed. This same variation in ability demands grouping for arithmetic in order to more adequately provide for the needs of each child.

Vocabulary remains as an important concern in the arithmetic program at all levels. Thus, during the intermediate years an understanding of words such as the following must be developed in a meaningful way:

balance	quotient	cube
estimate	decade	square
rectangle	rotation	ordinal
perimeter	digit	graph
per cent	fraction	decimal

It is not enough to memorize "teacher definitions" for words such as these. To be meaningful these words must be used by the children as a functional part of their vocabulary. And again it is necessary to

caution that part of "all the children" will not be capable of adding words such as these to their vocabularies.

ELEMENTARY EXPERIENCES IN SCIENCE

At the beginning of this chapter four objectives for teaching elementary science were presented. To accomplish these objectives children's behavior must be modified. At this point three important questions arise: (1) What science experiences should be offered; (2) to whom should they be offered; and (3) when should they be offered?

The question of what to teach remains as a source of conflict among even the ardent advocates for expanded elementary-science experiences. Some maintain that gradually intensified contacts with the natural world should form the basis for present and future study. Others maintain that it is most important to first teach those scientific principles which can be used daily as tools to increase the efficiency of living. Both sides agree that it is impractical and unrealistic to attempt to teach too much and that whatever is taught should be selected because it will contribute most to the child's developmental needs.

In a general way this statement supports the objectives set forth by Blough and Huggett. In addition, it includes the noteworthy caution to beware of confusing the beginner by trying to teach too much. It is important to remember that children, especially those in the primary division, are going through the process of making an all-important social adjustment. This adjustment can be aided by science but science as such must not interfere with it. Science is concerned with those things which can be exactly described or measured. Social adjustment includes some characteristics of great intrinsic value which cannot be so described or measured.

Too little is known about readiness for science instruction. For some time it has been assumed that elementary science should begin with experiences pertaining to nature study. This belief has undoubtedly been fostered by the apparent attraction that animals (play or real), flowers, and trees hold for young children. Obviously, such things represent an interest that can be an important factor in good learning situations. On the other hand, there is little or no evidence to indicate that nature study should monopolize the program or that it provides the types of experiences most needed at the elementary level.

There is some agreement that the elementary curriculum in science should be primarily concerned with broad scientific generalizations. Consequently, during the remaining part of this chapter certain recommendations based upon the following general principles will be made:

1. Science and health instruction should be closely correlated in the elementary school.
2. Conservation represents one of the most pressing problem areas in the modern world; therefore, experiences in it should be provided from the very beginning of the school years.
3. Children have an almost insatiable interest in nature study; until more is known about the science needs of children it should have a large place in the elementary program.
4. Science is inextricably involved in all areas of learning; therefore, it should not be forcibly separated from the other elementary areas.

The Primary Division. By almost arbitrarily dividing experiences between this and the intermediate division, the following examples will illustrate the preceding principles.

Principle 1. In the kindergarten the following health needs, interests, and beliefs are related to the growth pattern: ³

1. Growth in height and weight
2. Eating
3. Elimination
4. Exercise and play interests
5. Sleep and rest
6. Eyes and ears
7. Teeth
8. Posture
9. Illness and disease
10. Accidents and injury
11. Emotional adjustment
12. Sex adjustment

The obvious intention of those who constructed this list is to help small children develop some broad generalizations or principles re-

³ *Teaching Health in Kindergarten*, pp. 28-29, Peoria Public Schools and City Health Department, Peoria, Ill., 1949.

lated to these processes or conditions. It is possible to trace learning experiences concerning these topics through the entire school program; the kindergarten or first grade is merely the place where they should be introduced.

Principle 2. Children should begin to develop a socially constructive attitude toward conservation from their very first years in school. Conservation is usually thought of as applying to water, soil, wildlife, and forest resources. Generalizations concerning such things could be too difficult for some primary children. However, these children can learn to conserve time, books, pencils, toys, and paper. If some curious child should ask where paper comes from or why the dirt washes away from the side of the road, so much the better.

In addition, children are interested in considering conservation problems of the following types:

1. Feeding birds in the winter
2. Providing shelter and protection for young animals
3. Making the school yard beautiful
4. Using water for pleasure and work
5. Protecting plants from their enemies
6. Watching plants and animals grow

Principle 3. From the early years at school, children should be encouraged to increase their ability to form generalizations concerning plant and animal classifications. These experiences should begin with those things common to the child's everyday environment and should be expanded as his needs and interests indicate. The purposes of these experiences are to help children develop an appreciation for the world in which they live and to foster the development of a scientific attitude. It is impossible to consider plants and animals apart from their habitat. When the primary experiences are first concerned with those living things in the immediate environment, the child develops an understanding as well as an appreciation of it.

Questions such as the following concerning plants and animals lead to interesting and profitable experiences for children:

1. Where do they live?
2. What do they do in winter?
3. What do they eat?

4. How do they move?
5. How do we use them?
6. Where does rain come from?
7. Do plants eat?
8. What plants do animals eat?
9. Do animals live in families?
10. What plants do we eat?
11. What happens to the sun at night?

It may be desirable to introduce selected principles or generalizations concerning "matter and energy" in the primary division. This topic should certainly be introduced in the intermediate division and should not be excluded from the primary division if there is a need for and an interest in it. If the teacher must force a formal introduction of this topic, it should be postponed.

Principle 4. In the past far too many teachers have tightly compartmentalized the various areas of learning by allotting so many minutes a day to reading, arithmetic, science, history, etc. The obvious fact that history involves reading and that science involves arithmetic seems to have eluded these teachers. It is very unrealistic to attempt to force the integration of experiences that do not logically belong together. It is just as unrealistic to erect barriers between experiences that do belong together. In the *Elementary Course of Study* for Pennsylvania⁴ the fields of the social sciences and the natural sciences are brought together in a series of units under the general title of "social living." Some of these "social living units" involve several of the natural and social-science fields and some are concerned with only a single field. In each instance the attempt is made to integrate those experiences that belong together in order that children might have the opportunity to experience complete rather than partial learnings. By the same philosophy, things that can best be studied separately are retained in that form.

The meaning of integration as it is used in this instance can be illustrated by the following example.

To study the geography of any region many factors that supplement each other should be considered:

⁴ *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 123, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 233-B, Harrisburg, Pa., 1949.

1. The study of man's past and present ways of living and working in the region
2. The study of the natural environment, including:
 - Climate (temperature, rainfall, wind velocity, etc.)
 - Topography
 - Nature of the growing season
 - Wildlife available
 - Crops produced
 - Adaptability for manufacturing
3. The study of space and time relationships including:
 - Location of the region in reference to my home
 - Distance of the region from my home in terms of air miles, car miles, train miles—air time, car time, train time
 - Time belt in which the region is located
4. The study of the interrelationships between men in this region and other regions.

In this example experiences from many obvious areas are logically integrated, each building upon or contributing to the other. In addition, the experiences are not confined to any one grade level from the standpoint of where they begin or where they culminate. The mandate is to first recognize what kinds of experiences are needed. When this has been accomplished, they should be spaced and spiraled through the school program so that they remain possible, challenging, and functional when they must be drawn together for a complete learning experience.

The Intermediate Division. As the child moves on to this division, he should continue to grow in his understanding of the world about him. The natural curiosity of the child should be utilized to help him extend his knowledge and to use the scientific approach to solving problems in all areas. Children change rapidly during the intermediate years, and teachers must remain conscious of their growth problems as science experiences are planned.

The principles that guided the selection of the science experiences for the primary division are still applicable at this level. The emphasis on nature study is modified. A developing concentration on the physical sciences should be apparent. In addition, the children should be more proficient in their use of language. These facts open up new

areas of curiosity. It may only be possible to consider them verbally, but this does not necessarily minimize their value.

Several examples will clarify the nature of the development of the science program.

Example 1. In the primary division twelve health needs, interests, and beliefs were presented. At that time the fact that the primary division is merely the place where these needs are introduced was acknowledged. Consequently, through a continual program of intensification, the child in the intermediate division is ready to consider the following types of questions:

1. How does your body do its work?
2. What conditions are necessary if you are to maintain good health?
3. What are germs and what is meant by germ control?
4. What great advancements have been made in germ control? Who made them? When?
5. A healthy body is a safe body; consequently, what rules should govern my behavior around machines? My selection and purchase of food?

The purpose at this point is not to store up "knowledge" for the sake of knowledge alone, but to increase the individual's competency to live in his world and to develop his appreciation for the contributions others have made to it.

Example 2. In the previous division the children began to acquire some generalizations and principles that would help them classify and identify living things. As their skill in using these principles expands, they develop an awareness of the interdependency of plants and animals. At this point, the effective teacher can implement many valuable learning experiences centered around the interdependency of men.

The interrelationship of plants and animals cannot be fully appreciated unless the children have the opportunity to explore into the history of living things. Their increased language ability provides them with the tool for implementing the exploration. The following types of questions can be interesting and meaningful: (1) Where did corn come from; (2) how did the Indians use corn; (3) what is the "corn belt"; (4) what is hybrid corn; and (5) how much corn grows on an acre of land? It is not essential that the teacher know all the answers to such questions. A better learning situation might evolve if

the teacher and children develop the answers, conclusions, or estimations together.

Example 3. In the intermediate division the physical sciences begin to be more prominent. Children now begin to intensify their consideration of topics associated with the following words: sunlight, heat, magnets, sound, machines, sun, moon, stars, sky, air, weather, electricity, gases, etc. A brief review of the primary division will reveal that reference was informally made to the area of physical sciences. It was also suggested that a general utilization of these sciences should be postponed until the intermediate years.

At this level many children are interested in questions such as these:

1. Does the amount of sunlight change with the seasons? Why?
2. How do airplanes fly?
3. Six simple machines do much of our work. They are the pulley, lever, inclined plane, wheel and axle, screw, and wedge. Let's identify some of these machines at work in our neighborhood.
4. Are big machines combinations of simple machines?
5. How does the moon differ from the earth, stars, and sun?
6. What makes a telephone ring?
7. Where does electricity come from?
8. What is a coaxial cable?
9. Let's take a trip to a weather station to find out how they predict the weather. How often (percentage) are they right in their predictions?
10. How is city water purified? Isn't it necessary to purify country water?
11. How do our bodies produce heat?
12. What is a battery?

It would be possible to go on and on in the construction of this list. However, the purpose at this point is twofold: (1) to indicate the nature of the science program in the intermediate grades; and (2) to show that the types of experiences of which it should be composed are in the immediate environment. In a final analysis, the objectives should always be evaluated, and any experience that helps the children attain or approximate them is worth while.

TRENDS IN ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC AND SCIENCE

The following list of trends is not all inclusive or based upon exhaustive research. It represents impressions that have been obtained from studying various curriculums.

Arithmetic. Trends in arithmetic are toward:

1. A general upgrading of much of the traditional content.
2. An increased concentration upon, and elaboration of, the basic skills.
3. Applying the basic skills to actual problems encountered by the child in his everyday life.
4. Continually reinforcing the previous arithmetical learnings.
5. A sincere attempt to begin instruction where the child is rather than where the teacher wishes he might be.
6. Using grouping as a method of classroom organization in order to more adequately provide for the unique problems of the various children.
7. Using short intensive drill periods with small groups or with the entire class.
8. Considering the textbook to be a guide rather than a limitation.
9. Concentrating on the fractions that are commonly encountered, *e.g.*, halves, fourths, thirds, etc.
10. Developing the ability to understand decimals through their relationship to money.
11. Developing an appreciation of geometric form as it is seen in the world about us.
12. Continuous study of the problem of "arithmetic readiness."
13. Acquainting children with simple, basic business procedures—social as well as computational.
14. Stressing the social applications of arithmetic. (Arithmetical processes used in other areas of learning, in stores, at home, while traveling, etc.)

Science. The following are a few indications of the direction in which the elementary-science program is turning:

1. An increasing amount of study is being applied to the problem of determining how science can make its maximum contribution to the growth needs of boys and girls.

2. A growing de-emphasis on nature study and an increased emphasis on selected aspects of the physical sciences.
3. A concentration upon developing a scientific attitude through practice in problem solving. In accord with, and supplementing, this trend there is a marked emphasis on teaching broad scientific generalizations and principles and de-emphasizing the mastery of isolated scientific facts.
4. An increased effort to make the learning in science more meaningful by using actual child experiences that are centered in the environment.
5. An increased tendency to offer science experiences in combination with social studies, arithmetic, or some other area. The purpose behind this movement is to make more complete learning experiences possible by combining things that naturally belong together. It is hoped that such regrouping will help children make a more adequate social adjustment in the "atomic age."
6. An increased amount of emphasis is being placed upon the teaching of all aspects of conservation education.
7. An increased tendency to combine health education with science experiences.
8. A greater emphasis on developing interests that will serve as socially profitable leisure-time pursuits.

SUMMARY

Science and arithmetic are more than sets of specific skills and facts. They furnish an important part of the foundation for developing the ability to solve problems effectively and to think in a quantitative and qualitative manner. These abilities develop slowly and are most profitable when they are a challenge to a child's intelligence rather than to his memory.

Children live in a world that is dramatically characterized by advancements that are dependent upon science and arithmetic. They should develop an appreciation for the men and the processes that have made these advancements possible. They should also begin to develop an understanding of the relationship between social progress and that which is inseparably related to the field of applied science.

American children live in a world of natural wonders and bountiful resources. Their appreciation for these conditions and how to use them wisely should be manifest.

Experiences in science and arithmetic should be as functional as possible. This means that they should be child-centered and first involve problems in the immediate environment. From this point, expansion should be limited only by the ability and resources available to the group. Textbooks are a good resource but they should be considered as guides, or direction finders, never as limitations.

It is always important for teachers to consider trends in the fields in which children need experiences. Such considerations provide valuable assistance in keeping the curriculum meaningful in a world characterized by change.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Discuss the advantages of using small groups in the teaching of arithmetic. Explain the fundamental principles you employ in order to determine the composition of the arithmetic groups.
2. When is it advisable to use formal drill in the teaching of arithmetic?
3. A word such as "five" has no meaning by itself. The meaning is derived by adding some unit of measure to it, for example, "5 feet." What procedures do you use to help children develop this concept?
4. Classify the biological life that exists within your school community. Explain how you help children develop an awareness of the presence and importance of this life.
5. Why are such things as "bird books" an integral part of your language-arts program?
6. In terms of your experience, evaluate the objectives for science and arithmetic that are presented in this chapter.
7. Construct a list of words related to elementary science and arithmetic that children commonly have difficulty in understanding. Is it essential that these words be introduced at the primary level? The intermediate level?
8. Evaluate the use of teacher demonstrations of science experiments at the primary level; the intermediate level.
9. How do you determine what living things to keep in the classroom?
10. It is desirable for children to learn to express quantitative and qualitative relations in precise language. Certain generalizations are often misleading because they are based upon words or expressions like "large," "many," "good," "tall," or "a few." Actually, tall might mean 10 feet to one child and 20 feet to another; things considered good by one might be appalling to another. How do you help children develop an understanding of the importance of precise expression?

11. Describe a specific project in which you have integrated elementary science with social studies.

12. Do you consider it desirable and feasible to introduce topics associated with atomic fission and jet propulsion at the intermediate level? Should the nature of such topics be primarily social or scientific?

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Chapter 9. SECONDARY MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

The study of mathematics and science is imperative in a world characterized by international tensions, jet propulsion, "miracle medicines," and atomic fission. Growth in science and mathematics competence should be continuous from the primary grades through the culminating school years. If the direction of growth in these areas is well received, an abiding interest in science and mathematics should eventually be manifest among the adult citizenry.

Two approaches to mathematics and science are quite common at the secondary level. The first can be classified as a general-education approach in which an attempt is made to (1) further develop the processes, principles, and generalizations that are introduced at the elementary level; (2) continue the logical integration of science and mathematics with the other areas of learning; and (3) refine the utilization of the scientific and mathematical methods of thinking. The second approach can be thought of as differentiated learning through the use of science and mathematics. In accord with this concept classes are created for the students who need advanced skills in these areas and for those who need the opportunity to directly apply science and mathematics to a specific occupation or group of occupations.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE BASIC EXPERIENCES

The direction of teaching in science and mathematics is influenced by the imperative need to develop an understanding of the major generalizations, functional competence in the basic skills, and the desire and ability to think quantitatively, qualitatively, and scientifically. Four aspects of the secondary program of science and mathematics are readily identifiable.

1. *Objectives.* Social emphasis should be prominent in the objectives for the "general courses." The differentiated areas should be characterized by a distinct vocational or preprofessional emphasis.

2. *Direction of Learning.* The direction of learning experiences in secondary science and mathematics should involve:
 - a. Reteaching and provision for remedial instruction when needed.
 - b. A growing recognition of the importance of language adequacy.
 - c. An increased effort to use real-life situations for instructional purposes. This applies to the results obtained by abstraction as well as to the more simple arithmetical processes.
 - d. The use of many materials and teaching aids for enrichment purposes and to make teaching more effective.
3. *Intensification of Learning.* Learning experiences in these areas should be constantly intensified in order to help youth prepare to:
 - a. More effectively manage the personal aspects of living.
 - b. Understand and intelligently accept the responsibilities of adult citizenship in a democratic society.
 - c. Utilize in daily living current and past achievements in the areas of technology and science.
4. *Evaluation.* Procedures should be included that:
 - a. Assist in the appraisal of the student's ability to apply the methods of quantitative, qualitative, and scientific thinking toward the solution of problems in other areas.
 - b. Provide youth with an increasing number of opportunities to actively participate in their own evaluation.

A BROADER CONCEPT OF METHOD¹

It is difficult and impractical to consider the curriculum in secondary science and mathematics without making some comment about methods of teaching. Unless methods are improved it may be of little avail to attempt to improve upon the conventional content of the courses in these areas. Throughout the whole of his professional life each teacher must be a constant student of methods.

There is a curious notion abroad that there is only one "best" way to teach, if it can only be found. Worse still, teachers are afflicted from time to time by emotional demagogues who insist that some special pattern of method is the final word. The fact that these patterns of method enjoy only a brief hour of glory and then

¹ By permission from *Student Teaching*, pp. 158, 159, by Raleigh Schorling. Copyright 1949, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

are speedily forgotten suggests the futility of attempting to find a foolproof formula.

In a circular issued by a large automobile manufacturing corporation the following statement exemplifies this suggestion perfectly:

In engineering, there is seldom one way and only ONE way to accomplish a given result—nor is there just one BEST way. Generally speaking, I would say that there are about a dozen ways of designing any mechanical device. A dozen of them may be worth developing on a drawing board. A half dozen may be worth building experimentally—four or five may work out satisfactorily in practical usage. And of these four or five there are likely to be two or three designs where it is a toss up to which is the best.

Generally speaking, curriculum problems and problems of teaching are much more elusive than problems in engineering. However, the preceding statements and quotation are valuable in that they caution the teacher against expecting to find a panacea for all curriculum and teaching problems. Good teaching is constantly experimental. Method and content must both be adapted to the needs of the group being taught, they must not be completely out of harmony with practices in other parts of the school, they must be possible for the teacher who is to use them, and they should be understood by the school community. To think of a "broader concept of method" is a challenge for each teacher to evaluate his teaching problems and to search for those methods which make the greatest contribution to the solution of them.

SECONDARY MATHEMATICS

All mathematics taught beyond the last level of the elementary school and through the junior college can be classified as secondary mathematics. Two distinct parts can be identified in most mathematics programs at the secondary level. First, to meet the needs of "all the children" it is necessary to reteach the fundamental processes to those who were not ready for them at the elementary level. Second, it is imperative to offer intensified experiences in mathematics for those who need such experiences and have demonstrated competency in the use of the fundamental processes. The needs of both groups must be met, and in each case the program should be as functional as possible.

Grade Placement of Mathematics. To provide sequential experiences with mathematics it is necessary to estimate the various grade levels at which pupil readiness for them is at a maximum. Obviously, such grade placement will vary from school to school and with each student group. However, unless an attempt is made to understand the organization of the whole program students may be forced to submit to many unpleasant, unmeaningful, and unplanned school experiences.

The chart on page 179 represents one possible approach to the problem of grade placement.² An examination of the chart reveals several interesting facts.

1. Most of the subjects, algebra, geometry, etc., have been upgraded.
2. Mathematics for daily living, social usage, maintains a prominent place throughout the program.
3. Algebra does not dominate the mathematics program in the ninth grade.
4. A tendency to offer general mathematics for the nonacademic pupils at the ninth-grade level. Experiences in this course should provide the pupils with a more efficient tool with which to meet life's problems.
5. A tendency to offer vocational mathematics in the later years of the secondary-school program.

Currently there seem to be some other tendencies in the program for secondary mathematics which do not appear on the chart. For example, some teachers believe that mathematics should become an elective course after the eighth grade. Such belief apparently presupposes that all of the mathematical needs of youth have been met by this time or that the schools are unable to offer meaningful experiences beyond this level. On the other hand, there are teachers who recommend that the "college preparatory group" should elect algebra and all others should elect general mathematics. This recommendation suggests a number of problems:

1. Is there any reason to believe that the "college preparatory group" will be better prepared because they have studied algebra?
2. Does such a program imply that the "brighter" pupils will study algebra and the "duller" general mathematics?

² This chart should be compared to its counterpart on p. 161.

3. Are ninth-grade pupils prepared to make a decision concerning their activities following the completion of the secondary-school years?
4. Should all ninth-grade pupils who are not going to college be provided the same kinds of experiences in general mathematics?

There are no standard answers for questions such as these, but as long as they keep arising it is fair to assume that means are being confused with ends—that “courses,” not youth, are being taught. It is common knowledge that the major part of all secondary-school curriculums is ill adapted to meet the life-adjustment needs of the major part of all the youth who are of secondary-school age. This situation, in regard to mathematics, cannot be remedied by adding more courses or by regrouping youth within the framework of the existing courses. Quite to the contrary, it is first necessary to study the present structure of society and the problems of the youth who live in it. Only when such study has been completed, will it be possible to make intelligent recommendations concerning the nature of the secondary-mathematics program of the future.

A basic problem in the teaching of mathematics is to establish a functional relationship between it and the other areas, problems, or situations in which it can be used. In other words, competency in the use of mathematical processes must always be a means of helping youth to live more fully and meaningfully in their world of today and tomorrow. The new curriculum in mathematics will include many experiences built around topics such as Planning for the Future. The attention of the student will be specifically directed toward problems associated with (1) life insurance; (2) installment buying; (3) charge accounts; (4) planned purchase of bonds; (5) educational costs; (6) budgeting; (7) management of checking accounts; (8) utilization of savings accounts; (9) work and its reward; (10) social security; and (11) graphs and charts.

To consider adequately Planning for the Future, it is necessary to turn to many other areas for information and materials that will make a *complete* learning experience possible. For example, in Planning for the Future, it is necessary to consider such things as (1) the selection of leisure-time interests; (2) maintenance of the physical aspects of the home; (3) selection of an occupation; (4) child care;

and (5) social adjustment in the family. To offer a complete learning experience centered around this topic would require a major reorganization in many curriculums of the present. The curriculum can be no better than what it is conceived to be in the mind of the teacher. It is always necessary for teacher growth to precede curriculum reorganization. Existing curriculum structures often retard the "life adjustment education" for a large percentage of American youth. The effective professional teacher must be interested in continuous curriculum evaluation and experimentation.

Whenever the grade placement of mathematics is being considered, it is essential to remember that youth have present as well as future problems. Thus, in Planning for the Future it is necessary first to evaluate the background of the pupils, to analyze the problems they now have, to direct them in acquiring information and learning methods in order to adequately meet these problems, and to help them make the transition from solving present problems to solving problems of the future.

General Mathematics. It is advocated that general mathematics be offered on one and occasionally on two grade levels. When offered on the ninth-grade level, the course usually consists of a reteaching of the fundamental processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division to the "nonacademic" group. The learning experiences in a course of this type must be of such a nature that they positively contribute to the school, home, and community needs of the students.

When offered on the twelfth-grade level, general mathematics is occasionally intended for two distinct but often overlapping groups of students. For example, one approach is to attempt to make the course very practical by redirecting the students through a series of experiences in which they use the fundamentals of algebra, geometry, and arithmetic in solving their problems of everyday living. The second approach is to intensively review the most important arithmetical and mathematical experiences in order to fortify the background of those who will seek advanced uses for mathematics.

Algebra. It is often difficult to justify the inclusion of algebra in the curriculums of many schools. Algebra has the unenviable reputation of being one of the most difficult, and on occasion useless, subjects offered. The negative reputation of algebraic work need

not exist if teachers will conceive the subject to be only one of many areas from which some students can gain profitable experiences.

In most secondary schools there are some pupils who will need a background for doing advanced work in mathematics. These pupils need algebra in order to extend their conceptual backgrounds in mathematics. In addition, these pupils may well find the general nature of the algebraic experiences to be more interesting as they on occasion become more general than those encountered in arithmetic.

Difficulties with algebra are usually associated with the concept of literal numbers, the use of the equation, and the progressively higher degree of abstraction. Unless pupils receive adequate assistance in understanding the basis for any difficulty they encounter, algebra can degenerate into a meaningless sequence of mechanical manipulations of symbols. Those students who possess a keen interest in algebra and those who must understand its use in order to continue their education obviously should have the opportunity to study it.

Geometry and Trigonometry. Geometry is that branch of mathematics in which such figures as squares, triangles, and cubes are studied. Specifically, students of this subject construct and measure the various geometric figures and study the relationships that exist between their parts. Trigonometry, on the other hand, is more concerned with problems involving indirect measurements of distance.

Today geometry and trigonometry are vocational or professional subjects for many types of personnel such as astronomers, surveyors, architects, and engineers. Instruction in the formal aspects³ of these subjects should be elective but should always be available to those who need it for their vocational or preprofessional training.

Vocational Mathematics. It has been consistently maintained throughout the past two chapters that mathematics is a vital part of living. Unfortunately, many students have very unsuccessful mathematical experiences until they encounter a vocational need for them. Given the stimulus of practical, vocational motivation, students who were previously unsuccessful in their use of mathe-

³ A re-examination of the chart on p. 161 will reveal that informal geometry was introduced at the fifth-grade level.

matics frequently become competent. This does not mean that only the less competent should work in the vocational areas; it does mean that students often do not develop competencies because they have been improperly or inadequately motivated.

The following statement from a vocational-mathematics book illustrates the type of mathematical experiences that are necessary in the area involved: ⁴

Mathematical principles and concepts related to sheet metal work were selected from the general fields of arithmetic, algebra, plane geometry and trigonometry and applied in this new student's text and workbook. The mathematical areas covered include: Linear, Angular, Area and Volume Measure; Common and Decimal Fractions; Formulas, Equations; Proportion; Trigonometry and Graphs.

This statement is interesting for the following reasons: (1) Only such material has been included as is regarded to be absolutely essential; (2) a great amount of mathematics is considered to be essential; and (3) the mathematical principles and concepts that are introduced are applied to practical problems. In other words, an attempt is made to increase the student's interest in mathematics by the simple process of introducing new concepts only when he has a real need for them.

The Significance of Mathematical Interpretation. As previously indicated, mathematics is more than a set of specific skills and facts; it is also a way of thinking and interpreting. Butler and Wren maintain that "many generalized controls of conduct find their maximum significance only through mathematical interpretation." For example: ⁵

1. The laws of interdependence operate in the social order, national life, international affairs, and the universe around us.
2. Man in his artistic and architectural creations has recognized that the patterns set by nature are inherently symmetric and essentially geometric.
3. The conclusions reached through any chain of logical reasoning are no truer than their fundamental assumptions and definitions.

⁴ *Sheet Metal Mathematics*, p. iv, A New York State Vocational and Practical Arts Association Publication, Delmar Publishers, Inc., Albany, N.Y., 1947.

⁵ By permission from *Teaching of Secondary Mathematics*, pp. 47-48, by Charles H. Butler and F. Lynwood Wren. Copyright 1941, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

4. The laws of probability provide a scientific basis for protection against personal and property disaster.
5. Any science tends to become exact and to lend itself to prediction insofar as it becomes mathematical.
6. The practice of thrift and sound investment is essential to the economic stability and progress of the social order.
7. Security and comfort of structure largely depend upon the geometry of form and the mathematics of stresses and strains.
8. The checking of authority and the verification of results tend to cultivate independence of thought.
9. The habit of following a line of thought through a chain of logical deductions to a verified conclusion is a desirable attribute of character.
10. Science and invention have annihilated distance and speeded up communication.
11. A carefully planned budget is necessary to a smoothly functioning domestic and business life.
12. The thought processes involved in making generalizations from the concrete to the abstract are desirable characteristics of constructive thinking.
13. Analysis and synthesis are significant characteristics of constructive thinking.
14. The disposition to give sustained concentrated effort to the solution of a difficult problem is very desirable.
15. To be able to evaluate data, to select that which is significant, and to eliminate the superfluous are indispensable techniques of thinking.
16. The graph is unsurpassed as a method of depicting functional and statistical values and relationships.
17. Number is the language of science.
18. The discovery of the principle of position, or place value, and zero, the symbol for nothingness, introduced significant simplifications into the use of numbers.
19. The law of inheritance of traits is significantly mathematical in nature.
20. The theory of correlation is very useful in suggesting causal relationships.
21. All numerical measurements are relative in value.
22. The distribution of errors conforms to a definite mathematical law.

It is necessary to remember that experiences from many areas can contribute to the development of an understanding of "generalized controls of conduct." The goal should be to integrate as many experi-

ences as possible in order that each youth might find the best path for him to the solution of a problem common to many.

SECONDARY SCIENCE

The general education of youth must include many experiences in science. This is necessarily so because the advantages and the problems of living in the modern world rest to a large measure on the developments of science. Man's ability to gain the maximum utilization from the advances of science depends upon his developing the needed social efficiency to stabilize his relationships with other men. Consequently, the social role of science looms larger all the time.

Grade Placement of Science Experiences. It is very easy to become lost in a discussion of the important topic of "grade placement." To begin with, the word "grade" as used in this discussion merely refers to the various years in the average school program; thus, the seventh consecutive year of the school program is synonymous with the seventh grade. It is immediately necessary to emphasize that the pupils at any particular grade level will represent many degrees of ability and all kinds of interests and needs. In any average seventh grade, the teacher may expect to find some students with only enough ability to do the work of the fourth or fifth grade and some who can do the work of the ninth or tenth. In the same grade he may find some students from rural areas who have good backgrounds in nature study and some from industrial areas who have an equally good background in physical science.

This problem is further complicated because little or nothing is known about student readiness for the various kinds of science experiences. There is much to learn about the contributions that science can make to meeting the developmental needs of youth.

Perplexing as the problem is, some attempt must be made to allocate science experiences to various grade levels. In the preceding chapter it was recommended that elementary science should primarily be concerned with developing an interest in, and an appreciation for, the natural and physical world. As this development occurs, it is to be expected that each child will be enabled to find his place in this world. At the secondary level the experiences in science are more intensified and often follow the sequence indicated in the following chart.

There is a striking similarity between this chart and the mathematics flow chart on page 179. This condition, plus a continuous study of the needs of youth, furnishes the substantiation for constantly maintaining that more integration should exist between the various areas. Some teachers will maintain that if such integration occurs some phases of science may well be lost to the social studies; or some phases of mathematics may be lost to science. In all probability, this is not only possible but desirable from the standpoint of improving the educational program for youth. In the past, far too much importance has been attached to the maintenance of sharp lines of demarcation between the various areas from which the learning experiences are selected.

General Foundation for the Science Curriculum. There are many lists of aims, objectives, and purposes for the teaching of all phases of science. In the preceding chapter a series of objectives for the teaching of elementary science are presented. In a general way these objectives should be carried on to the secondary school.

The entire science curriculum is founded upon some very basic tenets which can be stated in the following simple manner. We live in a world of science. Some of us will be producers, but all will be consumers of science. All will profit by the work of the producers. Consequently, the science curriculum must serve a twofold purpose:

1. To select, through proper guidance, those interested in, and capable of, production.
2. To make users more intelligent and appreciative of the method of science, the wonders of the natural world, and the products of modern science.

General Science. This particular phase of the total science curriculum has been defined as "the fusion of various aspects of science within a broad field." The "science education" of a child actually begins as soon as he is capable of exploring his environment through questioning and observing. This education continues in the elementary school and on into the secondary school with the basis for understanding becoming ever broader.

The student at the first level of the secondary school should be encouraged to continue his explorations into the various aspects of science. Some of these exploratory trips should be common experiences that he participates in with his fellow class members. It is also

imperative that he be offered the opportunity to select an area of particular interest to him and independently to pursue it, using the methods of science.

There are many ways to initiate this independent work. One good example is furnished by a teacher who assigns the following type of term paper to his junior-high-school pupils: ⁶

DIRECTIONS FOR WRITING SCIENCE TERM PAPER

This paper is not expected to be a thesis for a university degree. It is a general science assignment to acquaint you with the problems of individual research and to allow you to use your ingenuity. The due date will be tentatively set for _____. This will give you an opportunity to learn to govern yourselves and to make wise use of your time. It will be necessary for you to do considerable outside reading and to make a careful plan of work. Start immediately—and do at least a little bit each week.

Your subject may be anything related to science, e.g. fish, birds, conservation, petroleum, astronomy, fossils, etc. Probably it should be the phase of science you have found most interesting. You must choose your subject and hand it in for approval by _____. After your subject has been approved you should prepare your outline. This is the skeleton of your paper, listing the main points to be discussed and will be used in developing your subject. Your rough outline will be due _____ and your final outline _____. The length of any piece of writing is never related to quality so use your judgment in that respect, keeping in mind that it is a term paper.

Following this introduction, instructions for composing a title page, inserting quotations, compiling a bibliography, and using pictures are presented. The presentation of the instructions concludes with this statement:

Your English teacher may have further suggestions. Remember: This is a junior high school assignment and your instructor will expect nothing but work of that calibre but neither will he *accept* work of less than your particular level.

The introduction indicates that student interest and individuality are important, good work habits are encouraged, and that each student's ability to work independently will be evaluated. However, the

⁶ This paper was furnished by Mr. A. Henderson of the Wichita, Kan., public schools.

closing statement is equally important because it encourages the integration of "English" with science and recognizes that each pupil must work at *his* particular level of ability.

Needless repetition of science experiences can make the curriculum stultifying. General science (exploratory science) in the junior high school must capitalize upon the growth that has taken place in the elementary school. It must not be a series of "watered-down experiences"—a mere prelude to something that is always to come later.

The advent of science at the junior-high-school level has often resulted in attempts to reduce science teaching to a few broad generalizations. This is a dangerous practice at best. At this level science experiences cannot be presented in a meaningful manner if confined to a few generalizations. In addition, when the content of any area is reduced to a few generalizations, there is a real danger that they will become all important with the consequence that many applications, illustrations, and practical examples will be neglected.

Biology. This is the branch of science that concerns the study of plants and animals and their relationships to each other. All of the phases of nature study that are introduced in the elementary school contribute to the eventual appreciation of things biological. The development of the ability to recognize, classify, and appreciate all living things in the immediate environment begins in the elementary school. This ability should be intensified and expanded in general, or exploratory, science.

Biology is usually offered at the tenth-grade level, but there is little or no objective evidence to indicate that this represents the best placement. Many teachers believe that students do not achieve the necessary level of maturity to understand, appreciate, and make practical applications of biological experiences before this time. Obviously, some students will achieve "tenth-grade maturity" before others, and some may never achieve it.

The teaching of health should be closely associated with the teaching of science throughout the school years. In the junior high school, youth should have many experiences involving the improvement of personal health and understanding. At the tenth-grade, or senior-high-school, level they should have many opportunities to develop a sound understanding of the biological basis of health and life. A study of the structure and function of the various parts of the human body should be related to "good health." In addition, it is recom-

mended that some time be allotted to problems of community health, stimulants and narcotics, consumer health, and supplemental teaching involving sex education and home and family living.

All students should have the opportunity to participate in the experiences offered in general biology. In addition, advanced work in the biological sciences should be available for those who need and can profit from them. It is extremely important that a steady flow of competent students be maintained to the advanced work in the natural sciences.

Physical Science. This is a broad field composed chiefly of nontechnical experiences selected from the areas of chemistry and physics. It is all but impossible to recommend the amount of physical science that should be included in the experiences of secondary-school students. The answer will depend upon the interests and needs of the students, the nature of the community, and the size of the school. However, it is reasonably safe to state that secondary-school students should be extended enough experiences in physical science to help them meet their needs of living adequately and appreciatively in the modern mechanized world. In addition, these experiences should serve a guidance function and should stimulate the type of critical thinking that is necessary for intelligent personal action in a democracy.

Advanced experiences should be offered in chemistry and physics for those who need and can profit from them. These sciences are of dramatic importance, and a more widespread understanding of the things with which they are concerned is to be desired. Competency in these areas must be accompanied by an equal amount of social competence.

Vocational Science. Many vocations are very closely associated with, and dependent upon, some basic knowledge of science. There is a need for vocational-science experiences. The planning of these experiences should include many practical applications of the experience involved and should definitely be geared to the needs and abilities of the students. Thus, in the secondary school it should be possible to elect courses such as physical science for the radio and television repairman, the sheet-metal workman, the automobile mechanic, the housewife, etc.

There are many who will agree with the general philosophy underlying "vocational science" but will maintain that it is possible

only in the larger schools. To rid oneself of any doubt that arises at this point it is necessary to remember three things: (1) Any school will only need to offer experiences related to the probable vocational choices of its students; (2) through the careful selection of method many scientific vocational problems can be provided for within the scope of a single course; and (3) a careful survey of the community will usually reveal many resources that can be utilized to provide vocational-science experiences.

SUMMARY

Growth in science and mathematics competence should be continuous from the primary grades through the culminating years in school. The direction of teaching in science and mathematics is influenced by the imperative need to develop the major generalizations, functional competence in the basic skills, and the desire to think quantitatively, qualitatively, and scientifically.

A considerable amount of disagreement exists concerning the nature of the secondary program for mathematics. In many instances sincere attempts are being made to utilize common youth problems in the formulation of mathematical experiences. The future holds much promise for the further extension of functional mathematics.

Much research is needed concerning the subject of "science readiness." It is also important that science teachers develop a clearer understanding of the contributions that science can make toward meeting the developmental needs of youth. Students should have many common science experiences but they should also be encouraged to select and develop individual projects. There is a need for a more widespread understanding of all phases of science. Any expansion of general competence in this area should be accompanied by an equal amount of developing social competence.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. How much mathematical and scientific competence is basic to the intelligent acceptance of the responsibilities of adult citizenship? What changes should be made in most present curriculum structures in order to more effectively help all youth acquire this degree of competence?

2. Explain the procedures you use to reteach the basic arithmetical processes when reteaching is considered necessary.

3. What factors should govern the grade placement of mathematical and scientific experiences in the curriculum?

4. What qualifications should a teacher of vocational science or mathematics possess?

5. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of offering general courses, such as "general science" and "general mathematics."

6. What degree of mathematical competence should a student possess before attempting to profit by formally studying algebra, geometry, etc.? Does any evidence exist that proves that students who plan to attend a college or university are better prepared if they have studied such things as algebra and geometry?

7. Explain the term "generalized controls of conduct" as it is used in this chapter in reference to mathematics. Describe specific instances in which this term can be used in relation to other areas.

8. Discuss the techniques that can be used to determine a student's readiness to participate in the various types of science experiences. For example, should a student attempt to formally study physics before he is competent in his use of algebra?

9. Outline a program of "consumer science experiences" that you believe would be profitable for most secondary students.

10. What degree of responsibility should the secondary schools accept for maintaining a steady flow of competent students to advanced study in science? Define competence as it is related to this question.

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Chapter 10. ART AND MUSIC

Art and music are an integral part of modern society. It is virtually impossible to escape contact with some form of these mediums of expression. At school, children should have many opportunities to develop an appreciation of the usefulness and the scope of these mediums. Through the course of the history of mankind art and music have contributed to the integration of the various phases of growth in the development of modern civilization. It is important that youth develop an understanding of the nature of this contribution.

A Modern Theory of Art and Music Education. Traditionally, many teachers of art and music have insisted that pupil growth in these areas should be measured in terms of what they produce. Such teachers are only secondarily interested in using experiences in these areas in order to stimulate the complete growth of each child. Primarily, they are interested in the production of inanimate things that can be displayed and judged by standards that may have little or no relationship to positive child growth.

Today, more and more teachers are realizing that art and music offer children a natural means of expression and are important methods of communication. As means of communication art and music should be used to bring together experiences from many areas. Thus, art and music should be working as integrating agents every period of the day, enriching all other areas and being enriched by them.

The experiences from these areas are extremely important from the standpoint of providing children with opportunities to express themselves creatively. Teachers should constantly emphasize the importance of individual participation, selection, thinking, and planning in relationship to the type of art or music experience that most adequately meets the developmental needs of each child.

ART EDUCATION

Children have an irresistible curiosity concerning all things in their environment. They desire to use all their senses to satisfy their inquisitiveness. As they grow they develop the desire to manipulate things such as blocks, clay, pencils, paints, and chalk in such a way that they create an interpretation of their experiences. It is important that children have an opportunity for self-expression. Such expression will frequently be indicative of their reaction to, and understanding of, their experiences. The child's attempts to interpret his experiences should be directed but never regimented. To regiment constantly is to destroy the strength that a democracy should realize as it profits by the unique contributions that are made by each individual.

Objectives for Art Education. Throughout the school years there is a need for a guiding set of purposes or objectives to guide child development through art. The preceding paragraph suggests some possibilities, for example, (1) to preserve the unique qualities of each individual; and (2) to develop imaginative and curious (inquisitive) attitudes. Certainly these represent desirable purposes or objectives but at least two additional purposes should be added: (1) Art experiences should serve a therapeutic function by assisting the individual to develop emotional and mental stability; and (2) art experiences should help each individual develop a deeper appreciation for beauty.

Art in the Elementary School. Children should be encouraged to work independently, using as many mediums as necessary to interpret their experiences. This statement is based upon Lowenfeld's tenet that knowledge exists in the following two forms: ¹

Active knowledge—What the child draws is his subjective experience of what is important to him during the act of drawing. Therefore, the child only draws what is actively in his mind. Thus in such a drawing of a man we get only a report of the active knowledge the child has of a "man" while he was drawing. In other words, the drawing gives us an excellent record of the things which are of especial mental or emotional importance to the child.

¹ Viktor Lowenfeld, *Creative and Mental Growth*, pp. 10, 25, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1949.

Passive knowledge—is the knowledge which the child has, but does not use. Education, not only with regard to creative activity, consists to a great extent in activating the knowledge not used.

This interesting concept is of importance to all areas of education. However, it is important to consider some related facts with it. For example, the things which are of especial mental or emotional importance to the child, those things which he creates by the direction of his imagination, have been affected if not created by his environment. His interpretation of these things may be all that is new. The educational process cannot begin and end at this point. It is necessary to create an environment for the child that includes experiences that are socially more acceptable, advanced, and meaningful. Children need direction in order to improve their tastes. They should experience planned sequential learning activities which are designed for this purpose.

Children should be taught with art experiences, and such teaching should certainly capitalize upon both their "active and passive knowledge." It should also be remembered that all learning experiences are subject to a valuing system. It is only reasonable to expect the nature of the art program to change as the values attached to it change.

The Art Teacher. In order adequately to direct the child through a series of meaningful art experiences it is necessary to have a teacher who is adequately prepared. Even this is not enough for much of the work of even the best teachers can unintentionally be destroyed by the home. Purser emphasizes the immediacy of this problem in her discussion of the requirements of an art teacher: ²

The requirements of an art teacher should include an understanding and appreciation of the art qualities in art of all periods, from earliest times until our own—and especially of our own—this for the purpose of discerning and encouraging true art qualities in the children's work. These qualities of color and composition (design) found in a child's painting correspond with those found in art of all periods and there is no harm in basing children's art upon a foundation on which all art rests.

Over-emphasis on technical skill or exaggerated encouragement of drawing which subordinates interest in color and design has been the greatest setback to young artists; it deadens originality and imagination.

² Mary Purser, "Directing Children's Art," *Everyday Art*, p. 12, American Crayon Company, Sandusky, Ohio, 1950.

Some teachers, blind to the important points of composition and color, have promoted only the obvious ability in a few to reproduce in accurate detail just what the eye sees; when no provision is made for the imagination or inner eye, great harm results. Proper training of the teacher should offset this.

The progress of the child cannot be assured in the improvement of the teacher alone; much of the teacher's work is lost and sometimes undone when the child arrives home. Parents, unable to appreciate the child's approach, unconsciously ridicule his efforts. It would improve the situation greatly if the parents could be reached with planned lecture programs, given by art teachers, in an effort to make parents understand the impulse that makes the child work creatively and imaginatively.

The need to "reach parents" is certainly one of the major educational problems of the present. The promotion of effective art experiences, as of all educational experiences at school, will be impeded as long as parents do not understand the reasons for the continuously changing and progressing nature of the experiences.

Art in the Junior High School. During these years youth often become self-conscious and critical of their own efforts and of the efforts of others. These pupils are very much aware of the surrounding world and of the value system maintained in it. This is as it should be, but it emphasizes the problem of providing art experiences that enable this age group to create with a feeling of satisfaction or some degree of success. Experimentation should be constantly encouraged, and a wide variety of materials should be available.

As the child progresses through these years, many of his art experiences should be organized on the "workshop" basis. In this informal atmosphere each pupil will have many opportunities to assume responsibility for his own behavior and to learn to work cooperatively as a member of a group. Emphasis should be placed on the technical aspects of individual and group problems when needed. Experimentation and research are suggested as methods for solving individual and group problems.

During the junior-high-school years it is possible to enrich many learning situations by integrating experiences from many areas. The following outline which guided a group project is illustrative of integrative as well as research procedures involving art at the junior-high-school level:³

³ This outline was prepared by Bruce Adams and Fred Willier of Williamsport, Pa.

GEOGRAPHY MURAL

The Development of Agriculture

Notes on the Development of a Mural. A mural tells a story. This particular mural, "The Development of Agriculture," tells the story of farming as it was practiced by the earliest man to our present day commercial agriculture. Due to the scope of the project this mural is designed for four integrated panels:

Panel I: Primitive Agriculture. This panel will show contrasting methods of primitive agriculture. Farming as done by the Belgian Congo Negroes, the Upper Amazon Basin Indians, the Oasis Peoples, and the American Indians must be integrated into one big picture (panel).

Panel II: Beast of Burden and the Plow. This panel will show the contrasting methods of agriculture in China and Europe.

Panel III: Domestic Agriculture. This panel will show the contrasting methods of agriculture in America (colonial period) and Chile.

Panel IV: Commercial Agriculture. This panel will show the contrasting methods of agriculture as carried on in different parts of the United States:

- a. General farming (typical Pennsylvania farm scene)
- b. Cotton belt
- c. Middle West (wheat and corn belt)
- d. Great Plains (beef cattle)
- e. Citrus fruit (California)
- f. Pacific Northwest (Oregon and Washington)

Committees will be chosen for each panel, and a committee leader or chairman will be selected. Areas or subdivisions under each panel will be assigned by the committee leader.

Each subject will require research and study. Research materials will be available in the art room, geography room, and the library.

Sketches should be made of the things you consider to be important for your particular area. When your sketches are completed, they will be integrated with other sketches for the panel plan (scale drawing). When this scale drawing is completed and transferred to the wall panel, painting can be started.

MURAL OUTLINE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURE

I. Primitive Agriculture

A. Belgian Congo (Negroes)

1. Living quarters—stick and mud huts, grass roofs, outdoor cooking fires

2. Natural environment—clearing in dense forest, ringed trees
 3. Domestic animals—chickens, dogs, pigs
 4. Tools—sharpened sticks, scenes of clearing and preparing soil, cultivation, harvesting, etc.
 5. Dress—type of clothing and jewelry
 6. Crops—sweet potatoes, bananas, pumpkins, squash, beans
- B. Upper Amazon Basin Indians**
1. Living quarters—maloka, huts, hammocks, outdoor fires
 2. Natural environment—along Amazon river, jungle background, canoes, wild animals
 3. Domestic animals
 4. Tools—clearing land, cultivating, harvesting, burned stumps remain
 5. Dress—type of clothing and jewelry
 6. Crops—manioc, sweet potato, bananas
- C. Oasis People**
1. Living quarters—adobe homes and tents
 2. Environment—desert dunes, scrub trees, grass clumps
 3. Domestic animals—sheep, goats, camel
 4. Tools—clearing, cultivating, harvesting
 5. Dress—burnoose, headdress, sandals
 6. Crops—date palm, citrus fruit, grains, vegetables
- D. Early American Indian (Virginia area)**
1. Living quarters—lodges; pole, pine, and bark huts; stockaded villages
 2. Environment—temperate forest area
 3. Domestic animals—dogs
 4. Tools—rakes, hoes, clearing, cultivating, harvesting
 5. Dress—skins, moccasins
 6. Crops—corn, tobacco, beans, pumpkins, squash
- II. Beast of Burden and the Plow**
- A. China**
1. Living quarters—small village, mud home, compounds
 2. Environment—all land cultivated, flat, Yangtze valley
 3. Animals—water buffalo, chickens
 4. Tools—bamboo rakes, combs, wooden plow, paddle wheel
 5. Dress—hats, robes
 6. Crops—rice, soybeans
- B. Europe (Poland)**
1. Living quarters—general type of construction
 2. Natural environment—plains, mountains

3. Domestic animals—ox and cart, ox plowing
4. Tools
5. Dress
6. Crops

III. Domestic Agriculture

A. American Colonial

1. Living quarters—colonial architecture
2. Environment—forest, farm, and pasture
3. Farm buildings, flail, cradle, horses, iron plow
4. Domestic animals—horses, oxen, dairy cattle
5. Dress—breeches, jackets, buckles, capes, hats, bonnets

B. Chile

1. Living quarters—hacienda—tenant houses
2. Environment—great central valley, class distinction, Andes mountains, snow peaks, cultivated foothills, valley floor
3. Tools, animals—horse and plow, beef cattle, sheep, horse
4. Crops—valley floor (wheat, grain, alfalfa), foothills (grapes and orchards)

IV. Commercial Agriculture

A. General Farming (East)

1. Dairy—silo, barn, cattle, milking time, etc.
2. Hay and grain—tractor, mower, thresher, reaper
3. Fruit—apple orchard—picking, grading, crating
4. Crops—garden

B. Cotton Belt

1. Plantation owner
2. Sharecropper—show contrast between two classes
3. Farm methods—mule and plow contrasted to gang plow, picked cotton to machine picker, cotton gin, and baling machine

C. Middle West

1. Wheat belt
 - a. Extensive grain fields, farm machinery
 - b. Grain elevators, silos
2. Corn belt
 - a. Extensive corn fields, rolling land
 - b. Beef and hogs fattening on corn

D. Great Plains

1. Beef cattle—cowboys, horses, roundup, branding, etc.

E. Citrus fruit

1. California

F. Pacific Northwest—Oregon, Washington, lumbering, salmon

As indicated by the outline, many skills were needed in order to complete this mural successfully. First, it was necessary for each panel group to engage in research in order to base their eventual painting upon authentic information. Second, it was necessary to prepare scaled sketches of the various parts of each panel and to fit them together in the final enlarged form. Third, it was necessary to produce the mural in its final form.

Here we find pupils profitably working on a project whose completion involves the use of skills from such areas as art, language arts and English, arithmetic and mathematics, geography, etc. Before the work could begin it was necessary for each group to organize itself and to assign various responsibilities to those most capable of accepting them. And, in conclusion, each group member had the satisfying experience of performing an unselfish service for his fellow students.

Art in the Senior High School. At this level the art program should continue to be organized on the informal workshop basis. For the most part, the work would be entirely elective, that is, the student would not be required to work in any area except the one satisfying his needs. However, after a student has selected a project he should be expected to pursue it to completion. For example, there may be several students who desire to redecorate their rooms at home and select this redecoration as a group project in class. Under the direction of the art teacher, they can evaluate various color schemes, considering such things as room location, light intensity, and style of furniture. In cooperation with the shop teacher, they might consider repair or creation of furniture and methods of redecoration. In cooperation with the home-economics teacher, they might consider the production of slip covers or draperies.

The idea of integrating certain aspects of art with other types of experiences can be carried on at all levels in many ways. In the preceding section an extensive outline was presented in which the integration of art with geography and other subjects was described. In an interesting article entitled "Dressing the Show," Blomquist presents the following example of integration:⁴

The high school orchestra begins the sweet theme of a minuet, the lights fade and the curtain rises on a brilliant scene, fifty dancers arrayed in stiff, rich brocades move through the stately dance. A little gasp of

⁴ B. B. Blomquist, "Dressing the Show," *Everyday Art*, p. 6, American Crayon Company, Sandusky, Ohio, 1950.

delight ripples through the audience. "The costumes," someone whispers, "what gorgeous materials!"

We are sorry to disillusion you, but we are happy to tell you the secret. Those rich brocades are nothing but twenty-five cents a yard unbleached muslin covered with designs printed by the silk screen process. That filmy, smoky-blue hoop skirt with the yards of floating chiffon ruffles is nothing but seventeen cents a yard muslin house lining. The filmy effect was obtained by three shades of light blue textile paint and one fine silk screen design printed all over, hit and miss, to get a full textured chiffon effect.

The procedure begins with research. For historical authenticity designs are studied in books of art, history, literature, costume, and even furniture and architecture. All sorts of sketches come back to the classroom and from these are chosen designs which can be adapted to the silk screen process. Students are encouraged to use ingenuity in re-working the design by using the original as inspiration to get the feeling rather than a direct copy.

Here again the research method is employed, and certain aspects of many subject areas are blended together in a very natural manner.

In the informal workshop type of program the needs of the gifted art student must not be forgotten. Constant attention should be also directed toward beauty as it is found in the environment. It is also recommended that books about all phases of and aspects of the development of art, as well as pictures and other things representative of various types of art work, should be available. Students should be encouraged to study the works of the master artists and to understand the many aspects of the periods in which they lived. Such study should eventually lead to a greater appreciation and general understanding of the nature of America's cultural heritage.

MUSIC EDUCATION

The music experiences of children should be built around their environment and should capitalize upon their urge to make believe. Music should be considered as a natural means of expression involving sound. Children should have the opportunity to experiment with the possibilities in various combinations of sounds. As Mursell states,⁵ "Music is something to be enjoyed, to be noticed, something they

⁵ James L. Mursell, "Music and the Grade Teacher," *The Resourceful Teacher*, Vol. 4, p. 1, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1950.

can feel at home with, and possess for themselves." To develop such an attitude toward music it is necessary to offer a variety of activities in order that each child may eventually find some phase that he enjoys.

Objectives for Music Education. It is possible to list a great many general and specific purposes or objectives for extending to all children the opportunity to participate in various types of musical experiences. However, the discussion at this point will be confined to a general statement of ideas which ought to be represented by objectives.

Every child needs an abundance of listening experiences. It has been stated that "hearing is not listening"; this implies that one must learn to listen. Therefore, in the music area there should be an objective or purpose concerned with the idea of learning to listen intelligently and appreciatively to music. There are all types of music; some is valued as being better than the rest. Consequently, if standards of appreciation are to be advanced there should be objectives that stimulate the development of a love and appreciation for "better music." The idea of enjoying music should certainly appear in any statement of objectives. It is also desirable to have objectives that stress the importance of encouraging those who have musical talents. Finally, it is socially significant to encourage the development of an understanding of the role music has played in the development of modern civilization.

The Elementary Course of Study for the State of Pennsylvania states the music objectives in the following manner: ⁶

1. The primary goals of music education are:
Enjoyment
Understanding
Satisfaction
2. The ultimate goal of music education is to add to the primary goals by:
Providing rich experiences of self-expression and intellectual stimuli
(singing, playing instruments, listening, creating, and rhythmic activities)
Providing a wholesome means of emotional release
Providing social growth together with essential prerequisites for good citizenship

⁶ *The Elementary Course of Study*, p. 436, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 233-B, Harrisburg, Pa., 1949.

Music in the Elementary School. Children should participate in the singing of songs as a natural activity. From the kindergarten on they should have many opportunities to select the songs to be sung. However, beginning at the children's musical level, the teacher should attempt to direct them so that they progressively choose better songs. It is suggested that children in the primary grades be permitted to sing about the work and play experiences in their immediate environment. Following the introduction of part singing in the intermediate grades, the possibilities will naturally be expanded, but the teacher should be very slow to cut all bonds with the immediate environment.

Rhythmic activities are usually very profitable and popular at all grade levels. The possibilities of integrating music and physical education are tremendous. For example, the physical education program includes story games, pageants, and basic rhythmical activities such as walking, skipping, running, and hopping. All of these activities should be executed to a musical accompaniment or to the rhythm of a tom-tom, or tambourine.

Generally speaking, instrumental music should not be introduced before the intermediate level. However, many primary teachers have had satisfactory experiences with such things as bells, tonettes, and marimbas. Instrumental music is beginning to occupy a place of increasing importance in the elementary school because of the many educational possibilities inherent in it. Brooks and Brown establish the following possibilities for elementary instrumental music:⁷

In the last few years, however, instrumental music in elementary schools has been justified because of its own acknowledged educational value. It is now recognized as one of the important modes of expression which the child has for the great inner impulse with which he is consumed. Its educational value lies in the fact that it furnishes another opportunity for self-expression on the part of the child. . . . Instrumental music is one means of individual expression which is for some children a thing of joyous freedom and beauty, just as singing, dancing, listening, dramatizing and similar activities are for other children.

For these and other reasons a continued expansion of instrumental music at the elementary level can be expected.

⁷ B. M. Brooks and H. A. Brown, *Music Education in the Elementary School*, pp. 214-215, American Book Company, New York, 1946.

Music in the Junior High School. The purposes for music education remain basically the same throughout the years at school. However, at the various levels different purposes receive a greater amount of emphasis than others. Thus, Mursell offers the following statement of "the key idea and purpose" for music education at this level:⁸

The key idea and purpose of the period from the seventh through the ninth grade may be thought of as a gathering of musical momentum. It is desirable to think of and plan for the work of this period not so much as a highly distinctive and separate junior high school program, but rather as a phase of continuous development. A basic orientation in favor of music should have established itself and it should have been consolidated and given point and precision by the emergence of specific technical controls and insights. And now the process must be carried further by expanding musical horizons and more precise and independent skills. This is brought about by the introduction of more exacting musical situations and activities and richer and more complex materials than the younger child can handle with advantage. What should be expected is a further momentum in music in general, and also the beginning of specialization based upon demonstrated aptitude and interest.

At the junior-high-school level, instrumental work can serve an important secondary function for many boys and girls. It is normal for youth of this age to organize themselves into groups or "crowds" for social purposes. These groups must have some interests that bind them together, and one interest can well be music. Consequently, it is not uncommon to find youth of this age organizing themselves into many types of musical combinations, and these combinations developing into out-of-school social groups.

It is important for youth to develop the concept that many of life's most meaningful satisfactions come from performing or providing unselfish service for others. The contributions rendered during such periods of service are long remembered, and what they might lack in quality is more than compensated for by the emotional warmth they provide. The development of this concept, experiencing this type of satisfaction, should always be prime reasons for encouraging musical groups of all ages to perform for others.

Rhythmic activities in physical education can be popular at any grade level. It is natural to teach the music of a country or period

⁸ James L. Mursell, *Music in the American Schools*, p. 139, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1943.

represented by a dance along with the steps and figures of which it is composed. When this is done it is possible for the students to further their understanding of the culture in which the dance was created. There are many interesting questions that arise at this point, and all would be worthy of some investigation. For example, consider the following types of questions: (1) How does the musical accompaniment for selected types of rhythmic activities change as it moves from one continent to another; (2) does the accompanying music in any way describe the people and the nature of their environment; (3) why are some types of rhythmic activities popular in many countries?

It is not advocated that the entire music program be composed of activities of this type. It is likewise not advocated nor is it desirable that the music teacher be solely responsible for the direction of all learning activities associated with integrated experiences. It is advocated that there be more integration between the related aspects of the various subject-matter areas, and it should be all but mandated that teachers search earnestly for such possibilities.

Music in the Senior High School. The entire musical program is given a great amount of momentum during the junior-high-school years. Some students begin to show special talents for music, some become members of bands, orchestras, and special singing groups, and some continue to maintain their interest by remaining as members of the general chorus.

It is important that all of these activities continue, but there are additional attitudes, appreciations, and understandings that can be developed through a study of great musical personalities. Such study also offers the opportunity to again integrate various aspects of selected subject-matter areas that logically belong together. To illustrate this point of view consider the abbreviated series of facts surrounding the following four men:

Ludwig van Beethoven was born December 16, 1770, in Bonn and died March 26, 1827, in Vienna. He is sometimes referred to as "the man who freed music." Obviously, no music teacher would want to separate this great composer from the minuets, sonatas, and symphonies which he composed. Unfortunately, too many teachers stop at this point and do not consider the revolutionary period in which the man lived, the possible effects the period had on him, or the influence he had on it.

In Beethoven's lifetime the natural rights of men were set forth in the now immortal Declaration of Independence. This action was followed by Washington's taking command of the "patriot army" and eventually directing the winning of the War of Independence which set the American colonies free. Within the span of this same lifetime France with her glamorous court, artificial in her concept of absolutism, unequaled in social intercourse, renowned for arts of all types, lost her brilliance as she faced a dark shadow created by a ruinous home and foreign policy, privileged-class greed, parasitism, bourgeoisie restlessness, and an incensed peasantry. The life span of this man who "freed music" also covered the rise and fall of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Beethoven lived in an era during which the dignity of the common man was raised immeasurably. It seems that the music, art, literature, and history of the period ought to be integrated in order that youth be provided the opportunity to gain a complete understanding.

Stephen Collins Foster, America's best known minstrel, was born July 4, 1826, near Pittsburgh and died January 13, 1864, in New York City. This life span paralleled the development of important national and international doctrines and compromises. During this period steamboat traffic expanded and the railroads pushed toward the expanding frontier to carry a restless people westward and to bring back the riches of a continent. Each passing year was filled with tumult and raucous happiness, wealth and poverty, laughter and grief, and in Foster's lifetime it was all to foment in the blood bath of the Civil War.

There is a close interrelationship between Foster's song material and the events with which he lived; to appreciate one it is necessary to understand the other. But what of his songs, are they good music? This question is answered by Deems Taylor:⁹

So far as I know, only one song has ever made the Hit Parade eighty-seven years after it was written and seventy-seven years after the death of its composer. That song is *Jeanie with the Light Brown Hair*, by Stephen Collins Foster. In 1940 and '41, when the broadcasters and the American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers were feuding, the radio suddenly discovered *Jeanie*. She was sung, she was played—as a ballad, an aria, a chorus, a fantasy, a ballet, a foxtrot, a swing tune.

⁹ *A Treasury of Stephen Foster*, p. 7, Random House, New York, 1946.

It is a safe wager that during those two years Foster's ballad had more performances and was heard by more people than in all the years since its creation. The wonder is that it survived such mauling, that it has not departed into Limbo together with *Yes, We Have No Bananas* and the *Hut Sut Song*.

Survived it has, for it has in it the stuff of imperishability. Together with a half dozen of Foster's other songs, it will be heard for many generations to come. Just why? What is the peculiar charm about so many of Foster's songs that sets them apart from the works of his contemporaries, that keeps them alive and glowing today? For one thing, they are great tunes, true melodies. In their pristine versions their accompaniments were primitive in harmony and childishly simple in form. The radio and dance bands have brought the harmonies up to date and some of their accompaniments and arrangements are fearsomely sophisticated. No matter. Foster's airs lean upon no accompaniment. Many of them are almost more effective without any accompaniment at all. Also, they are well within the range of the average, untutored voice, without ever conveying any sense of deliberate limitation. A child can sing them; so can a coloratura. In his own field their creator, who started as a bookkeeper and ended in a free hospital ward, was a genius.

Richard Wagner was born May 22, 1813, in Leipzig and died February 13, 1883, in Venice. Within the span of this lifetime France became a republic for the second time, and continental Europe in general was restless and disturbed by wars, uprisings, and "parliamentary discords" of various types.

It is impossible to understand a man without also understanding the period in which he lives or lived. Therefore, it is important to know that Wagner was involved in revolutionary political activities in Dresden in 1848 and was forced to leave the country in 1849. It is interesting to speculate about the effect of these events upon his musical career. It is helpful to know that a great composer of grand opera was a real, active person interested in the affairs of his fellow men.

America's most famous "modernist," George Gershwin, was born September 26, 1898, in Brooklyn and died July 11, 1937, in Hollywood. His more famous compositions include *Porgy and Bess*, *An American in Paris*, and the ever-haunting and stirring *Rhapsody in Blue*. To understand Gershwin is to understand that part of the American scene which he interpreted, that part of our national

psychology which he was able to capture and express in his musical compositions.

The nature of Gershwin's music is illustrated by the following quotation: ¹⁰

There is nothing of our "woods and templed hills" in this or any music of Gershwin. There is nothing of the dewy freshness of a New England morning, nor of the desolate grandeur of the Southwest, the heroic stride of the Rockies or the nostalgic loveliness of the South. Gershwin's America was Broadway—and later, Hollywood. But just as truly as all roads lead to Times Square; just as surely as every type of American can be found, any time, within range of the white lights, and just as "blues," remotely the source material, were absorbed by Broadway from the impromptu plaints of the Southern Negro, so many things American that he had never experienced or observed himself came to Gershwin's music. And there is proof of this in the fact that nearly everyone American responds to and enjoys this music.

Art and music do not stand alone. They are both integral parts of all civilization. There are some who eventually become specialists in art or music, but all are consumers. As consumers, it is desirable that our appreciation of these mediums be continually expanded. Such appreciation is more readily developed when all related factors are understood. Those who have talents in these areas will obviously need special training. These people will eventually be the producers of art and music. However, their experiential background should be broadened as much as possible in order to make their interpretations, abstract though they might be, more meaningful. In addition, these potential producers should never completely be separated from those who will be appreciative consumers.

SUMMARY

Art and music are an integral part of modern society. These mediums have made a significant contribution to the integration of the various phases of growth in the development of modern civilization.

In the more conventional schools many teachers are primarily interested in the artistic and musical products that young people produce. In modern schools products are not forgotten, but the teacher is primarily interested in providing all pupils with experi-

¹⁰ Used by permission of RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc., Camden, N.J.

ences in these areas and attempts to evaluate the growth that occurs as a result of them. These evaluations also become a part of the total pupil-guidance program. Obviously, those pupils who show a marked ability in these areas are encouraged to do further work and are offered special instruction. It is just as important to provide a differentiated program in art and music for those who can profit from it as it is to provide differentiation in any other preprofessional or occupational area.

Art and music should be closely integrated with all other aspects of the curriculum. Frequently, the social, creative, and exploratory needs of young people can be most effectively fulfilled through experiences in these areas. To be creative or to explore does not mean that a pupil should have complete freedom from all teacher direction. It does not mean that each pupil attempts any number of difficult projects without first acquiring the skills that are necessary to successfully complete them. Planning is important in all areas of learning; but planning does not mean the establishment of the type of regimentation that requires all pupils to cut out tulips on the second day of May, to color them with crayons on the third, and paste them on the windows on the fourth. It does not mean that all pupils take two years of general chorus and listen to the music of Gershwin in November and of Wagner in June.

All too frequently, music and art are considered to be something special, to be of importance only when the "finer things of life" are being considered. As long as this feeling persists, the maximum pupil growth that can be achieved through these areas will remain unclaimed.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Discuss the ways in which art and music are contributing to the development of international understanding.
2. Why is it necessary for young people to have many opportunities to participate in creative expression?
3. Explain by using examples your interpretation of Lowenfeld's statement concerning "active and passive knowledge."
4. What is meant by organizing an art class on the workshop basis? How would you plan for such organization?
5. What is implied by the statement "hearing is not listening"? How do you teach children to listen to music?

6. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of introducing instrumental music before the intermediate level.

7. How does the teacher determine which pupils should be extended the opportunity to learn to play an instrument? When should a pupil be discouraged from continuing his study of a particular instrument?

8. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of entering art contests, band contests, etc. Should a different philosophy govern participation in an interscholastic athletic game as opposed to an art contest?

9. What criteria should a teacher employ when selecting the compositions to be heard in a music-appreciation class? When does a musical composition become a classic? Can the same criteria that are used in selecting musical compositions be applied to the selection of certain books to be read or certain pictures to be seen?

10. Describe the way you evaluate the pupil growth that occurs as a result of listening to such things as broadcasts of symphonic music or visiting art galleries.

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Chapter 11. HOME AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

One of the child's most important first needs in school is that of making an adequate adjustment to the new group members and new environment. This problem of adjustment is never completely solved. Each individual is continually making adjustments of varying degrees of importance, but he is likewise continually acquiring new skills to facilitate his making them.

Among the various objectives that have been developed for education, citizenship has always occupied a position of primary importance. The social and economic qualities of the good citizen are just as important as the political. Throughout the years at school each child should participate in socially meaningful experiences of ever-increasing difficulty that require him to make economic and social adjustments. Such experiences should enable him to eventually accept the home and vocational responsibilities of an adult citizen. The ability to accept such responsibilities can be most effectively accomplished by a program of education that is centered upon the developmental needs of the individual during each successive phase of his growth.

Traditionally, courses concerned with home economics, foods, and secretarial work have been filled with girls. On the other hand, courses in industrial arts and vocational training have been monopolized by boys. The philosophy underlying this chapter is in opposition to such practice and is centered around the idea that work in sewing, cooking, housecleaning, and child care, as well as work in wood, metal, and paints, is essential to living and that some knowledge of these essentials is important for both girls and boys. In connection with vocational education the position is maintained that such education will give youth experiences that develop vocational understanding and attitudes as well as performance skills in the general occupational areas.

THE FAMILY IN SOCIETY

The creation and maintenance of strong healthy families are basic to the development of a prosperous democracy. Schools fail to accept one of their most important responsibilities to society when they do not create an environment in which youth have the opportunity to develop an understanding of (1) their place as a member of a family group; (2) the interrelationships between various families in the same community; (3) the services performed by other community agencies for the family; (4) the foundations necessary before two people can achieve a successful marriage; and (5) the practical arts necessary to the maintenance of a happy home.

There are some individuals who apparently believe that the traditional form of familism has outlived its usefulness. These individuals point for verification to the following: (1) the light regard attached to the marriage bond by many couples; (2) the highly publicized but nevertheless alarming divorce rate; (3) the tendency to continually push the entering school age downward; (4) the decreasing number of children per family; (5) the increasing tendency or necessity for both husband and wife to be employed; (6) the apparent reluctance of many persons to accept any responsibility for parenthood; and (7) the change of the home from a production to a consumption unit. The implications of these statements should not be accepted fatalistically. They should be accepted as a challenge by all who believe in American democracy to continue in their efforts to raise the level of dignity of all men.

The accompanying quotation from Zimmerman¹ offers evidence that if the basic principles underlying the democratic form of family life are neglected it may face the danger of degeneration.

If we look back over the road followed by the family and civilization, we are led to some interesting conclusions. We might state that in general the most important contribution of the family to great civilizations has been made by the domestic unit. This type seems essential to high civilization. The trustee family never produced anything greater than the heroic epic. It belongs to the primitive formative periods of civilization. It is too decentralized, too localistic, for great civilization. The atomistic family, when it attains complete dominance, is the accompani-

¹ C. C. Zimmerman, *Family and Civilization*, p. 801, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

ment of dying cultures. The creative periods of civilization have been based upon the domestic type. The end of a creative period is always one in which the domestic family affords a comparatively stable social structure and yet frees the individual sufficiently from family influence to perform the creative work necessary for a great civilization.

It seems clear that the domestic form of family life should be strengthened. This condition cannot occur accidentally; it can be obtained only through a planned program of education maintained by the schools and all other social institutions of a positive educational nature.

Re-creating Family Values. To stimulate the re-creation of family values is a very necessary but most difficult task. The problem can be somewhat simplified by approaching it from many different sides and then integrating that information which logically belongs together. For example, this problem can be approached historically through a study of the decadence in family living as it paralleled and contributed to the decline of the civilizations of the past. This focus upon the behavior of people will tend to humanize the historical material. The construction of analogies between the past and present should serve as a stimulus to the process of critical thinking. Projects or units can be built around problems such as "What are the characteristics of a successful family in a democracy?"

The developing citizen should also consider selected sociological aspects of "family problems." For example, both parents in many families work away from the home with the result that no one is present to supervise the afterschool activities of the children. With no guidance children quite often become delinquent, and it becomes the responsibility of institutions other than the home to provide for their readjustment. What agencies or institutions are provided for this purpose? What is the nature of the educational program they maintain? How effective are they? How much does it cost to maintain them? Where does this money come from? Should the school provide afterschool programs for such children? It is important for youth to be curious about questions such as these. They must learn to evaluate critically the causal factors in such cases, possible methods of prevention, and alternative choices for correction. It is equally important for youth to know why delinquent acts are committed as well as to be able to interpret what delinquent acts are. Society maintains many "human institutions" to educate or re-educate.

cate those who have inadequately met the nurtural demands of living in the modern world. Youth should learn to appreciate the position that these institutions are performing normal functions and must continue to perform them as long as the problems exist that originally caused them to be created. The better world of tomorrow can be built upon the solution of problems such as these.

Many economic factors are involved in the creation of a happy home and in making one's contribution to the creation of a happy community. The support of agencies such as those suggested in the preceding paragraph presents an important economic problem. Before such problems can be adequately appreciated, it is first necessary for youth to understand the immediate and personal economic aspects of establishing and maintaining a home. These involve problems of budgeting, selecting an occupation, earning money, selecting recreational pursuits, and developing an intelligent concern for the future. This consideration of economic problems must not be isolated from the fact that church groups will offer instruction pertaining to church contributions, and various foundations, homes, and "research organizations" will employ many methods to solicit funds for support. In addition, this whole problem is directly associated with the three major topics of taxation, insurance, and installment buying.

Closely tied in with the economic aspects of family living is the complete health problem. The necessity of providing for selected recreational pursuits has been suggested. It is also mandatory to recognize that many young marriages falter and fail when they suddenly appear impossible financially. This condition is deleterious to the physical and mental health of the persons involved. Another aspect of the health-education problem is that of learning to purchase food that will provide for a balanced diet and preparing and serving it attractively with a minimum loss of food value. It is false economy to cut the budget for food each time the total family economic pattern seems to be approaching an unworkable state.

It is of great importance that youth develop an understanding of and appreciation for the moral aspects of family living. They should realize that many of life's greatest treasures are to be had through the performance of unselfish tasks for other members of the family group. Young people should also be fully aware that the power which raises the dignity of man and the family in a democracy is based upon the combined spiritual strength of all individuals—faith

is necessary, not inimical, to the development of high cultural values.

At least toward the end of the school years some attention should be devoted to child care and to the health needs of potential mothers and fathers. The responsibilities that accompany parenthood should not be slighted. At this time a definite attempt should be made to create an attitude toward parenthood that makes it something more than a sentimental experience. From the very beginning these potential parents should understand that the American democracy is strongest when each family of which it is composed is a miniature democracy. Good marriages resulting in good families do not happen accidentally—they must be planned for and youth must be educated for them.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR HOME AND FAMILY EDUCATION

The responsibility for creating meaningful experiences in this broad area belongs to all levels of the school system. No one person should be expected to be competent to direct the multilateral learning experiences of which this area is composed. One of the major strengths of the area is that many persons must cooperate in presenting it, thus providing the students with an enriched learning experience including a fine example of democratic action.

All social experiences offered in the school in some way contribute to this area. By the time the student reaches the last year of the secondary school the work should be quite intense and should be aimed directly at home and family living. For example, in the elementary school the children are offered opportunities to work together, are encouraged to help mother and father and participate in home activities, are assisted in maintaining animal-feeding projects in order to study nutrition, etc. These activities are all related to the big area of home and family living. At the junior-high-school level the learning situations are more intense and include such things as mathematics for home use, food preparation, and clothing maintenance.

In the senior high school the work in this area reaches its most intense phase. Here it includes a variety of home-economics and science experiences relating to personal appearance, clothing, foods, child care, consumer science, home and family living, and vocational science. In addition, some teachers responsible for home-economics and agriculture instruction direct individual projects in the homes

of students. These projects are presumably all aimed toward making a direct contribution to existing as well as future home conditions. The success of many of these projects has undoubtedly stimulated some workers in this area to develop planned work experience opportunities in many homes.

Traditionally, home economics has been offered to girls, and industrial arts or vocational training to boys. After leaving the elementary school these groups were seldom combined for work on common projects. Changes in the American social scene have caused some teachers to believe that it is desirable to bring boys and girls together for selected learning experiences pertaining to the area of home and family living. The nature of one such project is indicated by the following statement: ²

DESCRIPTION OF THE GROUP

Eighteen eleventh- and twelfth-grade girls and boys enrolled in an advanced home economics class. They have all had biology, health, and physical education, and some of the girls have had work in home economics.

Objectives

- To present a comprehensive survey of the physical aspects of adolescence and the problems of adjustment which often grow out of them, including a practical and socially acceptable vocabulary for discussing them.
- To destroy the many unfounded fears—of disease, pregnancy, insanity, abnormality—created by the old superstitions and gutter teaching.
- To foster an attitude of calm, confident adjustment based on a knowledge of scientific information.
- To produce greater participation in activities of approved social groups, the family in particular, and to further the choice and employment in daily living of practical and socially desirable standards of conduct and attitude.

In this area one of the main objectives is to promote the development of self-discipline. Obviously, a society of free people cannot exist with any degree of efficiency unless all possess this quality. Likewise, in a society in which the democratic family system is basic, youth must be provided opportunities to participate in many coedu-

² D. T. Dyer, *The Family Today*, p. 11, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950.

cational experiences including some in the area of home and family living. Such experiences must be provided if the essential program for the creation of family values is to have meaning. The questions that must remain unanswered at the present are (1) how much responsibility the school should accept for such experiences and (2) how much responsibility should be retained or accepted by the home, church, or other educational agencies. In any case, the best program cannot be designed until representatives of the various educational institutions in any community come together to discuss the kinds of experiences that are needed and why.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE PROGRAM FOR HOME AND FAMILY LIVING

A constant stream of new ideas and inventions pertaining to this area is always being developed. As a result, it is never possible to construct a "final" curriculum for it. For example, continuous research in nutrition, food preservation, and plant and animal development gradually and continuously alter our food habits. The development of new appliances and construction materials for clothing, houses, and furniture forces changes in the general pattern of living.

In addition, parents are continually being urged to provide their children with "freedom to develop in the home." Many families are being drawn more closely together in order to develop or provide services that each could not provide individually. More and more, the schools are being expected to assume the responsibility for providing training that at one time was considered to be the prerogative of other institutions.

It would be possible to construct an extensive list of "powers" that continually force new ideas into programs such as the one under consideration. These "powers" are not necessarily good or bad. They must always be evaluated and if they can contribute positively and objectively to the educational program for youth they should be used.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

Industrial arts is not a subject but is an area of experiences designed primarily to offer youth the opportunity to explore through shopwork and crafts and to obtain a firsthand knowledge of modern industry. Unfortunately, the work in this area is confined primarily

to boys, with a seeming disregard for the fact that many girls will eventually be involved in industry and that it would be desirable for all of them to develop some manipulative ability with common tools. It is not uncommon to find the industrial aspects of this area being exploited to the disadvantage of the exploratory. One reason for including crafts as part of this area is to encourage the maintenance of the proper balance.

In addition to the purposes suggested above, those who work in this area are attempting to develop good, safe work habits and various types of leisure-time activities. The following statement concerning crafts is indicative of the nature of the program at the elementary level: ³

Introduction

Craft work in the elementary schools is taught, not as a separate subject, as in the secondary schools, but as one phase of the whole industrial arts course. The time allotted to crafts may vary in the different schools, depending upon the interest and probable needs of the pupils, and upon the material and equipment available.

Since one of the purposes of industrial arts is to give the pupil an opportunity to create, to experiment, and to learn through interesting activities, crafts give the immature pupil of the elementary grade greater variety of experience than if the work were limited to one medium, such as wood.

Objectives

1. To develop in each pupil a special knowledge of materials, tools, and methods used in craft work.
2. To develop in each pupil the ability to follow plans and written instructions.
3. To develop in each pupil the appreciation of good workmanship and good design.
4. To provide each pupil a broader field in which he may find an avocation or hobby.
5. To better satisfy the desire of each pupil to do creative work.
6. To provide each pupil a greater opportunity for self-expression and the appreciation of beauty.
7. To develop the habit of working safely.

A multitude of opportunities exist for integrating many experiences with industrial arts at almost every level. For example, to

³ *Crafts for Elementary Schools*, p. 1, Kansas City Public Schools, Bulletin 75, Kansas City, Mo., 1949.

develop any knowledge at all of modern industry involves a study of raw materials, production, and products. Such study can and should be closely integrated with all aspects of geography, which, to be understood, must include selected experiences from science and arithmetic or mathematics. Such study must also include a consideration of types of tools and machines. This immediately introduces the additional topics of skilled and unskilled labor, which cannot be disassociated from the problems of labor-management relationships, union organizations, unemployment, etc.

Obviously, the grade placement of all this material which must be integrated poses a tremendous problem from the standpoint of readiness. Recognizing learning as a continuous process, the problem is how to spiral these experiences upward through the grades in such a manner that each new experience is introduced at the time when the maximum number of students can derive the most value from it. Industrial arts, like language, represents an area of experiences and it cannot stand alone. As in language, the true value of the learning that takes place in industrial arts should be readily apparent in the other areas.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

An examination of the history of the public schools reveals that various names have been applied to the industrial-vocational areas. The area of industrial arts has been defined. Before proceeding with a discussion of vocational education, it is first necessary to establish a relationship between the terms "industrial arts" and "vocational education."

The problem of definitions is approached in the following manner in *The Schools and National Security*:⁴

The term "industrial education" is an inclusive one that is used to designate the two major areas of education and training known respectively as industrial arts, or the nonvocational phase of industrial education, and vocational-industrial education, that is specifically vocational in purpose. Industrial arts is also a phase of general education having most of the generally accepted purposes of general education. It is provided in the schools at both the elementary and secondary levels for

⁴ By permission from *The Schools and National Security*, p. 179, by C. W. Sanford, H. C. Hand, W. B. Spalding (eds.). Copyright 1951, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

all children and youth regardless of their probable vocational futures. Aside from its purposes having to do with attitudes, appreciation, and habits of thinking and working and its developmental values, its primary function is to cause children and youth to understand the industrial aspects of their environment to the end that they may, now and throughout their lives, deal intelligently and effectively with them.

The basic function of vocational-industrial education is to train youth for successful work in industry. It serves those needing training to secure industrial employment, to increase their effectiveness as workers, and to win advancement to higher levels of employment.

Since the end of the Second World War, there has been a tremendous emphasis on creating and administering a secondary-school curriculum that will function in life for the noncollege group. Many of this group will not go directly into the various vocations, but, generally speaking, the vocational students are a part of this group. Life-adjustment education is that which is designed to "equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens."⁵

Supply and Demand. To advise vocational students intelligently it is necessary to study continuously the industrial supply and demand problem in the various localities in which the students will seek employment. Such study must be followed by a series of job analyses in order to determine the aptitudes that are prerequisite to success on the various jobs.

When the aptitudes and competencies for success on the various jobs have been determined, a guidance program including ample opportunity for exploration and testing should be instituted. The prime objective of this program should be to place each individual in a phase of vocational training in which he can ultimately be happy and successful. The guidance services should obviously not end once the individual has been assigned to a particular program. Almost all individuals will encounter many obstacles over which they must be helped; for example, (1) the nature of many vocations is constantly changing and the demand for new skills and competencies is increasing; (2) as the degree of competency in a particular area is increased a new evaluation may indicate the advisability of changing to a related occupation; (3) new inventions and methods often

⁵ *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*, p. 4, Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

"close out" particular vocations thus making it necessary to provide a broad general training to facilitate vocational re-education when necessary.

Work Experience. To become successful workers youth must have the opportunity to experience productive work under conditions of regular employment. In this way they are enabled to learn to work effectively. It is important to remember that under conditions of regular employment youth are paid for their work. In some instances this compensation makes it possible for the individual involved to remain in school.

It is often difficult to overcome the obstacles to establishing a program of work experience. However, the results are quite gratifying, and the rewards in terms of services rendered to youth make the work worth while. The following quotation from the *Annual Report of the Education Department* for the Allentown Public Schools indicates the type of controls that are necessary to keep such programs educationally sound.⁶

THE COOPERATIVE PROGRAM

The Statistics Are Surprising. At the end of the 1950-51 term 213 boys were placed on the cooperative program. During the year a total of 261 different boys had been placed with 115 different employers. This represents an increase of 49 students over the 1949-50 term. It is interesting to calculate that these boys have contributed approximately 124,184 man hours of skilled labor in this community during the last school term for which they received both employment experience and some \$115,599.

Two hundred thirteen young men trained in the skilled occupations and working and gaining experience represents a large contribution to the Defense effort in the Allentown area. We should also remember that many of these boys would be forced to quit school without this assistance, many partially support their homes, and some use this money for further education.

New Standards and Policies Safeguard the Cooperative Student and Program. Early this year strict requirements were set which must be met before the boys are placed on jobs. The rules are:

1. The cooperative job must lead to a skilled occupational objective or it must represent the highest skill level the boy can reasonably be

⁶ *Annual Report of the Education Department*, p. 20, Allentown Public Schools, Allentown, Pa., 1950-51.

- expected to attain. It must offer adequate training opportunity to the boy in the light of his abilities and occupational objectives.
2. The cooperative job must lead to the occupation the boy is studying in school or it must offer the boy comparable objectives.
 3. No boy may go to work on the work-experience program before the second semester of his junior year.

Cooperative work programs such as this are indicative of the fact that school and community can work together in order to provide a better education for all youth.

Imperative Needs of Youth. All youth who are enrolled in vocational work must have ample opportunity to participate in learning experiences that will provide a well-rounded preparation for accepting the full responsibilities of adult citizenship. It must also be remembered that the function of public education is to help individuals solve their present problems as well as to prepare them to solve problems and accept responsibilities and freedoms at a later date.

In 1944 the National Association of Secondary-school Principals published their well-known list of "Imperative Needs of Youth." These needs which youth have in common are: ⁷

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

⁷ *Planning for American Youth*, p. 43, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., 1944.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

The task of fulfilling the demands established by these needs is tremendous. To even approximate completing it demands the wholehearted cooperation of all who have an influence upon the lives of youth. Certainly the school must have a continuous "imperative needs" program that permeates all grade levels. Obviously, all of these needs are interrelated but at various times they will receive different amounts of emphasis. Thus, as a student progresses into the later years of the secondary school the major part of his program may be confined to the vocational area. This does not mean that he now severs all relationships with the other areas. Quite to the contrary, it means that he should constantly be directed to further his understanding of the interrelationships that exist between his major vocational interest and the other areas. Certainly it is easy to see the relationship between vocational competence (salable skills) and needs such as consumer competence, socially meaningful and acceptable use of leisure time, the maintenance of good physical and mental health, etc.

Objectives for Vocational Education. Ten specific objectives for this area can be readily identified:

1. To help each individual master the basic skills of a vocation for which he has the aptitude and in which there is the possibility of placement
2. To provide each individual with a broad program composed of general vocational information and experiences that will facilitate the continuation of his education or increase his future readiness for a program of vocational re-education

3. To develop an understanding of the relationship between personal health and vocational (industrial) safety
4. To develop an understanding of the requirements for entering a vocation and those related to it
5. To develop an understanding of the various methods of securing employment
6. To develop an understanding of the importance of the functions performed by a selected vocation for the total community
7. To develop an understanding of the interrelationships that exist between various vocations and the workers in them
8. To develop an understanding of the true functions of management and labor organizations and of the responsibilities that both have to the general public
9. To develop a desire to protect the rights of the consumer by producing only quality workmanship
10. To help each individual develop an understanding of the relationships between his vocation and the local, state, and national governments.

A vocation can never be isolated from the many influences that surround any activity in the modern world. Vocational education must almost automatically be integrated with most of the other areas of learning. For example, the student in vocational education must be able (1) to use arithmetical and mathematical skills; (2) to appreciate the purposes served by labor unions by possessing a certain amount of social understanding; (3) to advance in his vocation by being able to communicate competently and in many cases to study independently; and (4) to retain his individual dignity as a workman, by having some appreciation of the importance of his particular task to a finished product.

It would be possible to expand the preceding statement indefinitely, but its present construction serves the purpose of illustrating the type of integration that must exist between vocational education and the other areas. All school experiences would become more meaningful and interesting if the students understood the interrelationships between them. All things cannot be accomplished at one time, but an understanding of the relationships between the many factors that surround any individual could be developed more easily

if those learning experiences which logically belong together were always integrated.

BUSINESS SUBJECTS IN THE CURRICULUM

Generally, business education is thought to consist of clerical courses such as typewriting, shorthand and bookkeeping, and related courses, usually classified as "distributive education." Courses such as these are definitely of a vocational nature. To this list some curriculum makers frequently add a course called by various names, "everyday business," "basic business," or "general business." This course may belong in the vocational category or it may be classified as a general prerequisite for all business education. The more modern tendency is to disassociate "basic business" from the vocational area and to place it in the program of general education designed to help all youth gain competency in the business world of today.

"Basic Business" in the Curriculum. From the time when a child first enters school until he leaves as a young adult he is undergoing a series of experiences that increase his competency to handle business and economic problems. Planning a school party or journey; operating a "play" post office; participating in a Brownie or Girl Scout cookie sale; studying topics related to taxation, insurance, and installment buying; charting the effect of "work stoppages" on prices; and writing letters of application are all examples of points at which "basic business" can enter the curriculum. The opportunity to integrate many of these experiences is very apparent.

Each individual in the modern world is a basic business organization. To a larger degree this observation is true of each family unit. The development of business competency and economic literacy must not be left to chance but must be a definite, planned part of the curriculum for each student. This does not mean that all should have, or could profit from, the same basic business experiences. Likewise, it does not mean that basic business should be walled off in a corner of the school years, insulated with theory and isolated from all reality. It does mean that each student should have the opportunity to increase his current competency in the world of business and economics and should prepare to be more competent in the adult world. Business competency embraces more than the efficient management of one's personal affairs. The good citizen must also

understand the interrelationships that exist between all economic resources.

Vocational-business Education. In many secondary schools an attempt is made to offer some vocational-business education. As previously indicated, courses such as typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, office practice, etc., are indicative of the nature of much of this training. The student who wants to develop vocational competence in this area should first have the advantages to be obtained from a good general-education program. Obviously, adequate guidance services should be available to students, both boys and girls, who have the aptitude for, and interest in, entering this area of training.

Entrance into the vocational-business curriculum should not signify a severance of all relationships with other areas. The student should now place his greatest emphasis upon acquiring the necessary vocational skills and related understandings. But his needs for other types of experiences should be evaluated, and he should maintain contact with the other areas in order to care for them. The vocational-business student should develop an understanding of the forces that affect his vocation. He should be encouraged to analyze the interrelationships between business, management, and labor. Every effort should be made to keep him conscious of the development of new business methods and machines.

One handicap to many programs of this nature is the inadequacy of the equipment, in terms of amount and antiquity, needed for instruction. It is also unfortunate that many schools make no attempt to provide a real, productive work experience for the vocational-business students. Unquestionably, the equipment problem and part of the problem created by the need for a productive work experience could be solved by establishing cooperative training programs with local business houses. Care must be exercised to avoid the usual pitfalls of such programs, but if the school and the business concern involved were both cooperative the end result would be students more qualified to enter the full-time world of business.

Career Conduct. Teamwork is important in any enterprise. It is based upon the strict vocational skills one possesses and upon the relationships one is able to establish with those with whom he is associated. These relationships are dependent upon personal cleanliness and appearance and other qualities that are described by words such as cooperative, friendly, sympathetic, honest, fair, good-natured,

and human. Qualities such as these are not acquired accidentally but are the result of a planned program of education. These qualities represent learned social behavior, and incompetence in regard to them is one of the common reasons for the discharging of employees. Teachers of vocational business subjects must obviously teach the "manual" skills required for the various jobs. However, this other area of relationships is so important that it deserves special emphasis.

In her article, "Part of the Team," Carney emphasizes the importance of making an adequate social adjustment to those with whom you work: ⁸

The personnel manager of one large firm, for instance, declared flatly at a conference that "the most common reason for discharging an employee is his inability to adjust himself—to adjust himself to the work and to his co-workers."

Another personnel manager, with a record for maintaining pleasant employee relations, is frequently asked what he looks for in considering an employee for advancement. His answer is, "His effort to cooperate."

Here are this manager's suggestions for getting along with others in an office.

1. Be friendly with all employees, and avoid joining a clique. The tight little group is prone to gossip, regardless of how well brought up each individual may be.

2. Don't believe everything you hear. Sometimes a new girl makes the mistake of listening to criticism of certain department heads and she starts to dislike them, too, although without any reason. Then, if one of these executives should answer her abruptly, or neglect to let her pass into a room first, she magnifies the incident and becomes extremely antagonistic toward him. All this builds up to her own, and no one else's, detriment.

3. Be good-natured. It isn't smart to have quarrels that you can quote afterwards with, "So I said to him this and that and so on," and, "I told him he could run his end of the business and I'd run mine."

There's no place in business for a chip on the shoulder, as a person sometimes learns only after losing a good job.

4. When you are doing desk work, do it quietly. Refrain from humming, or from snapping your fingers or exclaiming when you make a mistake. A show of impatience won't help you, and it may cause those near you to make mistakes in their work.

⁸ Marie L. Carney, "Part of the Team," *Today's Secretary*, Vol. 53, December, 1950.

5. Unless a new job is simple and without variation, you will make a few mistakes at first. As you learn your work, the probability of error will decrease; but no matter how long you work, you will sometimes make mistakes. Everyone does. It is therefore essential to learn to take criticism with good grace:

- a. Admit your mistake, and apologize.
- b. Listen attentively as the correct way of doing the job is explained to you.
- c. Thank the person pleasantly for helping you.
- d. Go about your work without further ado. No complaining.

Being blamed unjustly is a situation that must be handled somewhat carefully. In general, you will find it best to explain as briefly as possible how little you had to do with the matter, and let things rest there. An intelligent employer will attempt to clear up a question at once, but if a discussion should continue, with others becoming involved, try very hard to keep calm and quiet. Remember, you will still be working with the same people an hour later, the next day, maybe for years, and a little self-justification will not outweigh having caused strained relations.

6. Take the good things in stride. The raise in pay, the new title, the private office, the business trip out of town—these are some indication of progress in a firm, and they are to be appreciated and enjoyed. But a girl doesn't want to concentrate so much on dignifying her position that she is practically unapproachable. One employer, who was replacing his secretary, told a friend, "Others in the firm can't stand any more of her high-hat way, and it's hurting me in my dealings with them."

As a girl meets new situations in business she will find many occasions for being co-operative. She can offer to bring back a sandwich for the accountant, who has to finish his trial balance before 3 o'clock. She may be asked occasionally to exchange lunch hours. One of the other secretaries will be very glad to have help in addressing envelopes the day she is rushed with heavy correspondence.

The business department is like the sports team. They both have to depend on every member's best effort to achieve success—success for the group as a whole, and success for everyone individually.

One of the child's first needs is to make an adequate social adjustment. If social-adjustment experiences are spiraled upward through the various school levels, most students should not have difficulty in regard to this problem. Each situation will contain some new aspects of this continual problem. Some common elements undoubtedly exist between all business environments, but

special emphasis must always be placed upon the necessity and methods of making a satisfactory social vocational adjustment.

SUMMARY

The economic and social competence of the good citizen is just as important as the political. It is a responsibility of the school to prepare youth to accept intelligently their place in the world of work. Such acceptance is dependent upon the development of both socially desirable attitudes and occupational skills. The development of these characteristics is a mutual responsibility of the programs of general and differentiated education. The materials, processes, and products of work should not be considered apart from the people who are engaged in it.

American democracy is dependent upon the maintenance of the domestic family unit. This type of family organization provides the social stability that is needed in a government of, by, and for the people and at the same time releases each individual to do the creative and productive work that is essential to the life of a prospering society. It is reasonably safe to assume that too little time has been devoted to this consideration.

Industrial education includes industrial arts, the nonvocational phase, and vocational education which is specifically vocational in purpose. An adequate guidance program should precede, accompany, and follow each pupil as he considers, learns, and practices an occupation. The results of a continuing study of occupational supply and demand should be available at all times. Whenever possible, work experience should be an integral part of the industrial-education program.

A positive attitude toward re-education for the world of work should be developed. In a prospering society new processes, methods, and occupations will constantly come to the foreground. Accompanying them will be the demand for new skills and modified attitudes. The program of re-education should be designed to meet these demands.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Discuss the types of family organization that have existed during the prosperous or degenerative periods of other nations.
2. Explain why it has become necessary for the school to accept an increasing responsibility for many of the aspects of education for home

and family life. Do you think it will always be necessary for the school to accept this responsibility?

3. How should the grade placement of industrial-arts experiences be determined?

4. Some critics of modern education believe that the schools should accept no responsibility for industrial education. Would it be possible for the schools to fulfill their responsibility to society effectively if industrial education was removed from the curriculum? Who would favor or oppose such removal?

5. Construct an inventory of the methods or sources a guidance director could employ in order to have access to current information pertaining to occupational supply and demand.

6. Discuss the meaning of the term "manipulative skills."

7. What basic equipment should be available in order to provide secondary pupils with adequate opportunities to develop manipulative skills? Do you think these opportunities could be provided in chemistry and physics laboratories just as well as in a general shop?

8. Describe the essential conditions that must exist before a work-experience program can be started. Do you believe it is advisable to send secondary pupils away from the local school community in order to obtain work experience?

9. How much time should pupils who are not going to college spend in vocational education? Should these pupils completely sever their contacts with the general-education program?

10. What are the implications for the curriculum of the following statement made in this chapter: Each individual in the modern world is a basic business organization?

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Chapter 12. PHYSICAL, HEALTH, AND SAFETY EDUCATION

One of the most difficult problems to solve in many schools is centered around the question: What is the proper place of health, safety, and physical education in the curriculum? Almost all teachers acknowledge to some degree the importance of this broad area. Students of human growth list the physical along with social, emotional, and mental development in their descriptions of the nature of the total growth pattern. Why, then, should there be any question concerning the place of this important area?

This question springs from many sources of which the following are indicative: (1) Many teachers consider physical education and play to be synonymous terms and believe that health is an automatic result of any physical activity; (2) some teachers believe that educative experiences in this area are of less importance than those in the "traditional subjects"; (3) many schools are poorly equipped physically to offer a balanced program; (4) many teachers are inadequately prepared to direct learning in this area; (5) in some instances athletics are permitted to dominate the entire area and the less skilled lose interest. These points all represent negative concepts, and the entire educational profession should assume the responsibility for erasing them.

THE UNITY OF GROWTH

To appreciate fully the importance of physical, health, and safety education it is necessary to understand that growth is continuous and each individual grows as a unit. The interrelationships that exist between physical, social, mental, and emotional traits are so close that in order to understand one it is necessary to understand all. Hurlock supports this concept of "unity" in the following manner: ¹ ". . . because the relationship between physical and men-

¹ By permission from *Child Development*, p. 102, by E. B. Hurlock. Copyright 1942, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

tal growth is so marked, it is impossible to have a real understanding of the development of the child's behavior without considering the growth of body structure."

It is obviously of little actual importance to consider the growth of body structure unless such study is accompanied by a positive effort to create conditions and learning experiences that will cause this growth to follow desired lines. The size and strength of the body are important factors in determining what types of physical activities the child can participate in successfully and what part he will take in them. Obviously, the child's mental, emotional, and social development are also important factors in determining his selection of, and success in, the various physical activities.

The malfunctioning, change in functioning, or general maturation of the physical organs are important factors in the maintenance of all aspects of health. Unbalanced activity of the endocrine glands, collectively or singularly, will affect the child's growth in these closely interrelated areas of development. Likewise, poor eyesight, inadequate hearing, unattractive skin, flat feet, poor posture, and weakened physical conditions resulting from illness or accidents are all important factors in determining the child's growth and nature of the curriculum experiences that should be designed for him. In addition, it is always necessary to consider problems of nutrition, rest, and general body comfort.

To add to the immensity of this problem there is a whole series of physical, mental, social, and emotional attitudes and problems that rather specifically accompany sexual maturation. At this time young people often find themselves in the position where they are neither "kith nor kin." They may have adult stature, may be expected to behave like adults, and then find that a multitude of adult rights and privileges are denied them. The boys may be faced with the prospect of immediate military service upon leaving school and never have the opportunity to develop recreational pursuits to occupy them in camp or during free periods. These same boys may also never have the opportunity to develop an understanding of why they are going into military service. There are reasons for the restlessness that tends to accompany adolescence, and many of the problems arising from this restlessness could be answered by a more adequate total curriculum.

Most children come to school eager to learn, anxious and capable of expanding their horizons many, many times. Many children also come to school hungry, weary from riding long miles on a bus, cold, with defective eyesight or hearing, with changing voices, with enlarging breasts and hips and clothing that does not fit, with decayed teeth, dirty, and with poor posture. The school alone cannot solve all the problems that cause or arise from these conditions. But such problems and conditions do affect the pupil's ability to learn and clearly emphasize the need for establishing close cooperation between all individuals and institutions that have a direct influence upon child growth. An adequate curriculum must provide experiences that satisfy the interrelated but different types of needs that each pupil possesses.

THE OBJECTIVES FOR PHYSICAL, HEALTH, AND SAFETY EDUCATION

Obviously, educating the pupil with experiences that are physical and mental in nature and that provide the stimulus for developing a socially constructive attitude toward the conservation of human life is the responsibility of all teachers. As in most areas, it is necessary and desirable to have specialists who are responsible for the creation of concentrated experiences in this area. The specialist cannot do the job alone. All teachers are responsible for creating and maintaining conditions for safe living and for developing an appreciation of the importance of each individual. One is dependent upon the other, and both must be developed if the level of human dignity in the world is to be continuously elevated. You may recognize this as a basic statement that is emphasized again and again in the chapters on "social development." It is well if you do, for it serves to enforce the position that there are many interrelationships that exist between all areas from which curriculum experiences are drawn. Unfortunately, these interrelationships have often been ignored with the result that youth have not had the advantages to be obtained from integrated learning experiences.

Health in all of its aspects is very obviously an integral part of all learning situations. Pupils who are forced to participate in activities in which they have no interest, for which they do not have the required aptitude, or from which they can sense no possible growth for themselves are well on the road to becoming maladjusted

in some respects. This maladjustment will eventually result in exhibitions of protest staged in other places or learning situations.

This discussion initiates the establishment of ideas that are basic to the integration of physical, health, and safety education with other areas. At this point it is necessary to consider specific objectives or aims for selecting learning experiences from this broad area.

Objectives for Physical Education. When the objectives for a specific area are considered, it is always important to recall that they must blend into, become an integral part of, the objectives for all education. Only when the objectives for each area are so considered is it possible to establish the integration that must exist between all areas if youth are to have meaningful learning experiences.

In answering the question, what direction should the growth of our children take, LaSalle formulates the following five objectives for physical education: ²

THE OBJECTIVES OF ORGANIC ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

Endurance (the product of the development of the organic systems)

THE OBJECTIVES OF NEURO-MUSCULAR ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

Strength

Relaxation (release from tensions)

Body control

Flexibility

Recreation skills

THE OBJECTIVES OF EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

Release from tensions

Adequacy

Happiness

} Integration

THE OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

A feeling of group consciousness

Determination of group purposes in light of the best interests of those involved

Cooperation in realizing group purposes

A feeling of membership in group

A feeling of friendliness and respect for personality

Consideration of the rights and feelings of others

A sense of responsibility

Self-direction for the common good

² From *Guidance of Children through Physical Education*, pp. 17, 18, by Dorothy LaSalle. Copyright, 1946, A. S. Barnes & Company, Inc.

THE OBJECTIVES OF INTELLECTUAL ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

[When physical education is effectively guided, the program will be permeated with opportunities for intellectual development. For example, decisions must be made about the best time to run, where to dodge, how to pivot, what boundaries to use, and numerous interpretations of game rules to make them applicable to local conditions.]

This list of objectives provides a good working example of the relationship between the various subdivisions of the area of physical learning experiences. It is also an excellent classification because it places a great amount of emphasis on the social and intellectual aspects of development. Too often, physical education is a lightly regarded subject that is crowded into a few unobtrusive minutes each day. Under these conditions it is considered to be strictly a "muscle building course," a time of the day in which only competitive games or competitive self-testing activities are stressed. Too frequently, many teachers forget the relationships that exist between physical and mental growth and that physical education can provide many of the most meaningful social and intellectual developmental experiences.

In summary, it can be stated that physical education contributes specifically to (1) the development of organic endurance; (2) the development of many types of neuromuscular skills; (3) the general development of socially adjusted, intelligent human beings; and (4) the development of a sense of enjoyment and well-being through physical activities.

The Objectives for Health Education. Health is such an important prerequisite to all successful living that it appears in most statements of objectives for education. Occasionally the emphasis is on physical as distinguished from mental health. It is doubtful if a distinction should or can be made between these two aspects of health. For example, the individual in poor physical health who is still able to maintain good mental health is quite rare.

The teacher in the modern school must be interested in ever-broadening concepts of mental health. For example, in a world that is becoming increasingly aware of the interdependence of all men, it is just as much a mental-health problem as it is a social problem to consider the origin and nature of such things as prejudice, bias, and scapegoating. It is important for all youth to develop an understand-

ing of and appreciation for the democratic way of life and to understand the relationships between the freedoms it grants and the responsibilities it imposes. It is likewise important for all youth to adjust adequately to their families and to understand that the family as a social unit is basic to the democratic way of life.

In a world that wants to be free, good mental and physical health are a prime requisite. To have such health it is necessary to develop an attitude of morality that transcends the bounds of personal morality, to consider health problems such as malnutrition and starvation as they exist in America and in other parts of the world. The relationship of malnutrition and starvation to the acceptance or rejection of a political ideology—here is an example of the democratic act of choice making that can very definitely be affected by the level of the mental and physical health of the choice makers. Here again it is very easy to see the necessity of integrating health with other social-developmental experiences.

This discussion is in no way an abstraction. To the contrary, it is a real, live, difficult problem that must be understood, appreciated, and solved by those who desire a better world for today and tomorrow. However, it is a little more customary to consider health instruction from the standpoint of health needs in the home, school, and community.

Health Needs in the Home. These needs can be classified as needs of the family unit and needs related to the physical environment. In the first category a complete range of problems including such things as nutrition, care of the teeth, nails, and hair, finding one's place in the family circle, sleep, hobbies, disease, child care, etc., should be considered. In the second category problems involving heat and ventilation, control of insects, relationship of room decoration to lighting, home safety, etc., should be stressed. To meet these needs it is obviously necessary to draw upon areas such as art, science, social studies, health, mathematics, and home economics.

Health Needs in the Community. Each community is composed of several homes. Consequently, the relationship between the health needs in the home and community is very close. For example, sanitation, control of communicable disease, maintenance of health services, and elimination of traffic hazards are problems that must be solved by the collective action of the various "homes." It is through the expansion of the local community into an ever-larger community

that the importance of the health problem in the world of today is brought to light.

Health Needs in the School. Health problems in the school are not appreciably different from those in the home and the community. Because of the nature of the school organization, it is possible to offer experiences at school that could not be offered in a controlled manner by any other institution. For example, following a study of the desirability of a balanced diet, many pupils have the opportunity to go to a cafeteria and select and purchase such a meal. This provides an experience in consumer education as well as in healthful living.

The school is also an effective agency in developing an understanding of the nature and necessity of the health-service agencies in a modern community. It also has a profound obligation to help youth develop a proper attitude toward the place and use of these agencies. Experiences in industrial arts and vocational education should stress occupational health and safety problems. And, of course, this link between vocational education, industrial arts, and health provide another example of the necessity for integration if youth are to have meaningful learning experiences.

Throughout this discussion many types of health needs have been identified, and their relationships to other areas have been suggested. Each of these needs could be stated as an aim or objective for health education. Such a listing would be unwieldy, so it is desirable to consolidate the needs into a statement of four objectives that will encompass (1) the development of a body of functional health knowledge; (2) based on number one, the development of personal health habits that are scientifically correct and socially desirable; (3) the development of positive, socially meaningful attitudes toward the maintenance, creation, and use of public health services; and (4) the development of an understanding of the importance of the creation of adequate physical and mental health standards throughout the world to the spread of the democratic ideal of freedom, with a consequent raise in the level of human dignity.

The Objectives for Safety Education. The primary purpose for the inclusion of safety education in the curriculum is to conserve human life through the creation of conditions that provide each individual with an ever-greater degree of physical security. It is appalling to

study statistics of all types of accidents and to suddenly realize that little apparent value is attached to human life.

There are many aspects to safety education, and it is impossible to understand the nature of the objectives for this area without considering several of them. To begin, it is necessary for all to be aware of the tremendous amount of information available concerning all aspects of safe living. Many accidents occur because the individuals involved are not aware of the precautions they should have taken or conditions they should have established in order to protect themselves.

It is not possible to learn one set of safety rules, to practice them, and thereby to live safely. Changing conditions demand changes in safety behavior. Consequently, safety educators have a profound obligation to try to make all youth continuously safety-curious. It is to be hoped that this curiosity will cause them to weigh continuously the consequences of their actions before acting. All teachers must share in the responsibility for providing a continuous program of safety education. Industrial arts and vocational education, physical education, driver education, science, and home-economics teachers represent a selected classification of teachers who daily provide direct experiences in learning to live safely at school. The director of the elementary-school traffic patrol, school-bus drivers, and art teachers who construct safety posters are examples of other teachers and school personnel who have a major part to play in this never-ending crusade.

If the level of physical security is to be constantly elevated, all individuals must feel an inner compulsion to want to live safely. External compulsions in the form of speed zones or exhaust equipment over various types of industrial machines are not enough. It is a sad commentary to think that man with all his tremendous potentiality for creativity, with the blessings of freedom at his doorstep must be policed or else live dangerously. Yet the stark realization that people cannot be coerced into behavior patterns that are socially acceptable is always present. At the same time, the truth that people can be so educated that they will behave in a socially accepted manner is also obvious. Man is not perfect. He will make mistakes, and these mistakes will often culminate in misfortune for himself and others. However, if youth are directed toward the understanding that they will always be interdependent in this area,

as in all other areas of social development, the hazards of life in the modern world will certainly be decreased.

This discussion establishes three rather obvious objectives for safety education: (1) to help each pupil develop a body of functional "safety" knowledge; (2) to help each pupil develop a "safety curious" attitude that will cause him to continuously evaluate his behavior and modify it so that it is safe; (3) to cause each pupil to want to create conditions that provide all individuals with a maximum degree of physical security.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

The physical education curriculum is the sum of each pupil's physical experiences. When it is recalled that the objectives imply that physical education contributes to all aspects of a child's development it becomes obvious that many types of activities must be used. Some types of activities, with changes made to accommodate the different levels of maturation, are employed almost equally intensively at both the elementary and secondary levels. Other activities are greatly intensified at one level and de-emphasized at the other. In all instances many types of activities must be used in order to have a balanced program. The final selection of an activity must always be determined by the needs of the learners.

Types of Activities. The learning experiences in physical education should be closely integrated with the learning experiences from other areas. The greater majority of the experiences commonly employed in physical education can be classified as one of the following types:

1. *Rhythmic Activities.* This popular type of activity may include experiences in free expression to piano or tom-tom accompaniment or planned walking, running, and skipping activities. On another level, rhythmic activities may take the form of formal or informal, modern or traditional, dance procedures.

With the direction of a well-prepared physical education teacher, pupils of both sexes and all ages can profitably spend a great amount of time in activities of this type. As suggested in the chapters on social development, dance activities provide many opportunities for splendid integrative experiences of an intercultural nature.

2. *Mimetic Activities.* In this category it is possible to find small children creating and exercising by imitating elephants, horses, fairies, wood choppers, and a host of other things. Older children

with varying degrees of elaborateness might recreate many parts of the American folklore. Here, again, the possibilities of developing meaningful integrated experiences are all but rampant.

3. *Games (of Low Organization)*. Games that are usually identified under this classification do not require great skill or elaborate team organization. Sometimes games in this category are classified as "chasing and fleeing games" to distinguish them from "games of high organization" or "games of skill."

Low-organization games are usually characterized by mass movements in response to a predetermined signal by one person being designated as "it" or in their most complex form by a very loose type of team organization.

4. *Self-testing Activities*. These activities are among the most popular in the physical education curriculum. In this category are found activities involving speed, balance, endurance, or accuracy. The emphasis is upon each individual studying and charting his own improvement, not upon comparing him with any other individual. It is quite easy to maintain activities of this type, and when they are well directed they are excellent examples of true measures of physical growth.

There is some disagreement concerning the types of activities that belong in this category. Despite the disagreement, it seems fair to claim noncompetitive swimming, golf, diving, individual gymnastics, and perhaps activities such as hunting, archery, and fly casting for this area. The possibilities of enriching many physical education curriculums by selecting activities from this area are tremendous and in many places are unexploited.

5. *Games (of High Organization)*. This is the realm of the team games, of games that depend upon some degree of playing skill and effectual cooperation between players. Many boys and girls have their first direct experience in a value system when they begin to participate in games of this type. Here, for the first time, it may be necessary to consider the qualities of leadership as a captain is selected. Or, again, for the first time, it may be necessary for the members of each team to assign roles to various members of the group, dependent upon the skill possessed by each member.

Games of this type frequently provide an opportunity for the teacher to direct the learning that is necessary for boys and girls to develop some understanding of the balance between competition and

cooperation that must be attained by the citizens of a democratic country. Unfortunately, many teachers often fail to take advantage of the opportunities to exploit learnings of this type because they busy themselves excessively with the playing skill or competitive aspects of the game. Such teachers need to realize that to attain the objectives for physical education pupils of all ages must be taught with, and through, experiences that involve the physical. Skills are a necessary attribute to success in many physical activities and they should not be minimized in a futile attempt to find a panacea for the ills of the physical education curriculum. However, teachers must realize that the sheer mastery of skills as such does not represent an objective for physical education. The acquisition of skills must be clearly evaluated in terms of their contribution to the total developmental needs of the pupils involved.

6. *Corrective Activities.* Many boys and girls come to school with physical maladjustments that can be corrected, compromised, or compensated for through a planned program of exercise. Experiences of this type should be planned only by master teachers working in each case in close harmony with the family physician. The nature of the correction that is needed will vary from pupil to pupil, but a careful examination will reveal that a surprisingly large number of pupils need corrective work of some type. Teachers must constantly guard against the unjustness of limiting physical education experiences to only those pupils who are very fortunate physically.

7. *Camping Activities.* There are often many obstacles to providing experiences that involve camping, hiking, and associated recreational pursuits. These activities are not limited to any grade level and to be valuable do not need to include overnight experience.

Quite often, the objectives for physical education can be closely approximated through activities of this type. In addition, the groups that participate in planning their meals, purchasing their supplies, securing permission to participate, plotting their route of travel, establishing rules of conduct, reviewing the nature of the locale to which they are going, and evaluating the hike or camping trip upon their return are making functional applications of skills from many areas.

The interests of many children can be more completely released through experiences of this type than through those that are more conventional. A hike or camping trip is not merely a means of add-

ing a "frill" to the curriculum or providing freedom from the confines of the gymnasium, classroom, or playground. It is an experience in living, exploring, appreciating, cooperating, reflecting, and growing up in an environment usually more natural than any that man can create.

A few schools have tried limited camping and hiking experiences and some, as described in the chapters on social development, have explored the educational possibilities in them quite fully. In the modern age, in which teachers are trying to help youth to adjust effectively to life in an expanding democratic society, hiking and camping, as well as excursions and trips, are certainly valuable means of expanding the horizons of learning.

Readiness for Physical Education Activities. One of the most difficult problems is the selection and grade placement of the various types of activities. The question is, where will each of the various activities contribute most to the total development of the pupils? This is a difficult question to answer, but the following suggestions should help the curriculum maker formulate an answer to it.

1. Growth is a continuous process; this truth must permeate the whole program. To capitalize upon this truth an attempt should be made to select learning experiences that are appropriate for the level of maturation attained by the pupils for whom they are intended.

2. The physical education curriculum must be so planned that each succeeding level of experiences capitalizes upon those that have preceded. In addition, while the present experiences must fulfill the current needs of the pupils, they must also be so planned that they furnish a background for the experiences that will follow.

3. Each teacher must consider the needs of the whole child. Thus, no experience should be considered to be strictly mental or physical. To a varying degree each experience possesses qualities that are important for the physical, moral, emotional, social, and mental development of the pupil.

4. The pupil should be able to understand the values he will obtain by participating in the experience. In the past, all pupils have routinely been assigned to classes in which they all learned the same lessons without ever knowing why. A democracy can best prosper when its citizens are capable of understanding the possible result of actions they choose to take. A prospective adult citizen does not suddenly reach some magical age at which he is capable of making

intelligent choices. He can best learn to make choices by having many directed opportunities to make them in regard to all aspects of his life.

HEALTH-EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

The person who possesses good health is capable of realizing his highest mental, moral, social, emotional, and physical potentialities. Health, then, is the realization of these potentialities, and the basic purpose of all health education is to help each individual approximate this realization. The curriculum should include a large body of functional health knowledge that each individual studies in order to implement his developing scientifically correct and socially desirable health habits. The mere memorization of scientific "health information" will not ensure the development of the desired habits. If such habits are to be developed, pupils must so thoroughly understand the relationship of the information to themselves and to others that they will be motivated inwardly to develop them. This is still not enough because health information is continually being modernized and he who would utilize it must be "health curious."

All citizens are responsible for the maintenance of public health. Certain standards pertaining to sanitation, the maintenance of adequate housing conditions, remedying of the cause for, and controlling the spread of, communicable diseases, and the maintenance of basic medical services for all who need them, are representative of types of public health services. These services are evidence of the importance that is attached to the maintenance of public health. In addition, they are a recognition of the fact that some individuals need help in maintaining personal health standards.

Democracy as a way of life is characterized by a high level of human dignity. It is the one way of life that promises individuals the opportunity for freedom to develop whatever abilities they have and to become respected, participating group members. To be able to develop one's potentialities as a member of a democratic society, to be able to accept the individual and group responsibilities that one is privileged to assume as a member of such a society, requires a high degree of health in relation to all aspects of human development. The underprivileged, the starving, those who live under constant tension and fear, the illiterate, and those who are discriminated against can hardly be expected to embrace the democratic way of life

unless they are educated to understand that it alone holds the promise for a better day.

The Dimensions of Health Education. In an expanded sense health education involves man's complete environment. In the first part of this chapter the nature of health education in the home, community, and school was discussed. Unfortunately, such a consideration of this important phase of education is often much too academic. Teachers and pupils must constantly engage in experiences that prepare them to face one of the most difficult phases of their continuing life adjustment.

The ability to think rationally, to meet the problems associated with economic independence, to use leisure time well, to respect one's fellow men, and to become a happy participating member of a family, are examples of needs that indicate the dimensions of health education. No longer can curriculum makers consider their task done when pupils are scheduled into health-education classes on the alternate days when they do not have physical education. To the contrary, through more realistic preservice and in-service training programs all teachers must develop a better understanding of their responsibilities to all aspects of health education. A popular girl at school might be a maladjusted family member; the skillful mathematics student might be continuously frightened by the atmosphere of the gymnasium; the outstanding athlete might be very obnoxious in the community; the child who comes to school bearing racial prejudices is burdened by a problem over which he has no control—these statements represent health-education problems that cannot be solved in any one class.

The development of good health habits and attitudes is not entirely a pupil problem. It is too easy to find the grim-faced teacher administering meaningless examinations to tense, frightened pupils. Stories of sarcasm and cynicism being heaped upon some young individual who is trying to do his best in a curriculum for which he has no aptitude are far too common. It is likewise not fair to blame the teachers for many of them have no access to supervision or never experience the satisfaction that comes with democratic administrative leadership. On the other hand, many administrators are handicapped by ill-prepared school boards who are, in turn, handicapped by resourceless communities. This, in other words, is a problem that must be faced by the entire educational profession; it is basic to all

successful teaching and must be assigned a place of paramount importance.

Integrating Health Experiences. The social aspects of health education have been emphasized. It is important to point out that school children have important direct contacts with health practices in school that are often considered to have little more than nuisance value by many teachers. For example, most pupils experience immunization programs at school, and some have the opportunity of complete health examinations. The competent teacher will not let such activities pass without helping his pupils develop an understanding of why such services exist. Stories of famous disease fighters, the history of immunization, the development of the "miracle drugs," and the physiological aspects of disease can all be brought together at such times.

There are always numerous opportunities to bring health experiences to the foreground. For example, consider the possibilities inherent in the following suggestions: (1) drinking-fountain courtesy; (2) foods from many lands; (3) plants that harm us; (4) the world's houses; (5) cleaning my room; (6) neighborhood health hazards; (7) I weigh and measure myself; (8) what is bread; (9) occupational health rules; and (10) health at mealtimes. Obviously, this enumeration could be expanded indefinitely. It is included here in order to demonstrate that health education can be closely integrated with many areas—language-arts, arithmetic, science, or vocational education.

SAFETY EDUCATION

The objectives for safety education are centered basically around the creation of conditions that will help conserve human life. There are three aspects of safety education that should be considered. These are safety education in the school, in the home, and in the community.

Safety Education in the School. Experiences in safety education should be provided by all teachers at all grade levels. This does not minimize the importance of the functions served by specialists in this area, but it points up to the fact that safety instruction, like health instruction, is a responsibility of all teachers.

When children first come to school they are immediately involved in the safety program because they arrive either as passengers or pedestrians. Once they arrive it is necessary to immediately acquaint

them with the rules for safe conduct in the corridors, rooms, playground, or special rooms such as gymnasiums. The teacher will also direct them through fire drills that involve not only a rapid means of exit from the building but also reporting fires and the type of safety consciousness that causes one to look for fire hazards and other unsafe conditions.

Throughout the course of the school day the pupils will be faced with safety problems. These problems will involve traffic patrols, games, the care of minor injuries contracted at or away from school, developing good habits with respect to rain and snow clothing, and analyzing the hazards involved in the miscalled practical joke. Problems such as these are an integral part of the entire school program. For example, it is only necessary to recall that the objectives for physical education include those for the "neuromuscular aspects of development" which involve strength, body control, recreation skills, relaxation, and flexibility. The individual who is well developed neuromuscularly will be in better condition to respond to hazardous conditions than he who is less developed.

There are innumerable projects of varying degrees of significance that can be used to provide experiences in safety education. For example, it is deemed advisable to consider such things as (1) vacation safety involving such things as water safety and protection from sunburn; (2) the smaller children considering safety in regard to animals, roller skates, or bicycles; (3) pupils at the junior-high-school level constructing a safety check list for the home, involving medicine cabinets, stairways, lighting, stoves of various types, climbing, insect bites, and fire hazards; (4) students at the senior-high-school level considering broader aspects of transportation safety involving air and railway transportation; and (5) at the same level the problems of vocational safety, broad aspects of the relationship between safety and conservation, and safety in relation to firearms.

Safety, health, and physical education are all directly concerned with helping each individual to attain his maximum development in order that he may live fully and serve best. In order to do this it is necessary that rules be formulated to direct better the efforts of the learners along socially desirable lines. Youth should have an opportunity to participate in the formulation of those rules that intimately regulate their conduct. This does not mean that they will disregard the wisdom and experience that has been attained by adults.

It does mean that under the direction of a competent teacher they will have a real experience in the democratic process of governing their individual and group behavior through the acts of reflective thought and choice. Obviously, the amount of freedom permitted will depend upon the maturity of the pupils involved. It is imperative to understand that youth cannot become self-directive by memorizing and passively accepting a series of regulations stated in adult language for and by adults far removed from the scene of the problem. Such procedure is even more meaningless when young people observe adults flagrantly violating the regulations that youth have been forced to memorize.

Human beings are America's most valuable resource. Our best efforts should be directed toward establishing the type of physical security that is necessary in order to conserve them.

Safety Education in the Home. In many respects home safety remains the greatest unsolved problem in the field of safety education. Outside the home it is possible to supervise rather closely the administration of certain rules and procedures that will produce some degree of safety. It is far more difficult to enforce safety measures in private homes. This difficulty is enhanced because many of the home accidents are less sensational than those that occur in public, and consequently the public conscience is not aroused. In all safety education the big and most important task is to so educate each individual that he is safety-conscious. For example, periodic housing inspection may standardize certain regulations concerning electrical wiring. But these inspections will not take care of the defect that occurs during the interim period through neglect or carelessness. Defects of this type can be cared for only if the individuals involved are aware of the hazard of the situation and have the desire to remedy it.

Homes, the areas that surround them, and the activities in which the occupants are engaged vary from community to community. The nature of the safety-education program should definitely be influenced by local safety problems. It is often an excellent learning experience to direct the pupils as they ascertain the nature of such problems and then to consider the precautions that should be formulated to minimize the risks involved. Home safety depends to a large extent upon adult supervision, but it is a responsibility of every member of the family. An adequate educational program for home safety education must always involve both parents and children.

Safety Education in the Community. A positive attitude toward the inseparable qualities of safety consciousness, health consciousness, and citizenship is of paramount importance in a democratic society. Adults and youth must plan together for safety if a community in which each person possesses a greater degree of physical security is to be developed. The adults must assume the responsibility for the leadership in such planning, but it is important that youth have the opportunity to participate.

In many communities individuals of all ages do not have access to adequate facilities for safe recreation. Many such conditions could be alleviated if all school buildings, school playgrounds, gymnasiums, auditoriums, churches, parks, and other community buildings could be staffed for longer hours each day of the year. As long as young people are forced to play in streets, alleys, and vacant lots with absolutely no planned supervision, or swim in infected, unguarded swimming holes, or climb through deserted buildings and perhaps use them for club headquarters or gang hide-outs, it is only reasonable to forecast many tragic accidents, to say nothing of the maintenance of a high level of delinquency.

The problem of transportation hazards is present in all communities. Rules, regulations, and laws will tend to protect street crossings, control the operation of public transportation facilities, compel automobile owners to periodically check the mechanical efficiency of their automobiles, and curb excessive speeds. In the final analysis, to have freedom from transportation accidents, the type of control that is necessary is self-control on the part of both the pedestrian and the operator of the transportation facility whether it be a bicycle or a public-utility bus. Such self-control can result only from a planned program of safety education.

Closely allied to the problem of transportation hazards are the safety problems that center around all types of machinery. Construction projects of all types seem to possess a great fascination for young and old alike. It is common to see large groups of people pressing against the most fragile type of retaining device in order to watch digging, dumping, moving, blasting, and erecting operations. The goal should not be to stop this popular "spectator sport" but to so educate the spectators that they will not transgress upon the rights of the constructors and to cause the constructors to be more diligent in assuming their responsibility for the safety of those who pass by

as well as for those who stop to watch. For example, it is to be doubted if a constructor has discharged his responsibility to his fellow men when he posts a sign saying, "Construction in progress—pass at your own risk." By the same token the passer-by is not accepting his responsibility when he violates warning signs.

During all seasons of the year it is common to see immature youth working with and around all types of power farm machinery. In such cases many individuals assume that a "man's farm is his kingdom," and if he deems it all right for his children to operate power machinery no one should interfere. This is a good example of the statement previously made that it is impossible to create a safe environment without the cooperation of all members of the family. Safety instruction including the importance of maintaining all equipment in good operating condition should be a part of all farm-youth programs. Such instruction is valuable, but much of the value can be lost if it does not reach the adult members of the family.

Safety education is a responsibility of all community institutions that exert an educational influence upon youth. Despite the fact that some of these institutions may consider their functions to be highly specialized, they should not minimize their responsibility for designing their programs with due regard to *all* the needs of youth.

SUMMARY

To appreciate the importance of physical, health, and safety education it is necessary to understand that growth is continuous and that each individual grows as a unit. The interrelationships that exist between these various aspects of education are so close that in order to understand one it is necessary to understand all.

The possibilities for "education through the physical" have frequently been regarded too lightly. Experiences drawn from this area should specifically aid in the development of organic endurance, neuromuscular skills, a sense of enjoyment and well-being, and in the general development of socially adjusted, intelligent human beings.

Teachers in modern schools must be interested in developing ever-broadening concepts of health. These will involve health needs at school, in the home, and in the local and ever-larger community. The development of a basic set of health habits is not enough. If health education is to be effective, the goal should be to help each

pupil be "health-conscious" and to develop an appreciation of the importance of health to the realization of the ideals of democratic living.

To conserve human life through the creation of conditions that provide each individual with an ever-greater degree of physical security is the primary objective for safety education. Safe living cannot be legislated into being. If the level of physical security is to be constantly elevated, all individuals must be so educated that they possess an inner compulsion to want to live safely.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Why has mental health become such an important concern of all teachers? Can mental health ever be considered apart from physical health?
2. Discuss the possibilities of closely integrating certain aspects of health education with social studies at the secondary level.
3. Describe the type of information that must be available before a teacher can effectively plan positive educational experiences for a maladjusted pupil.
4. What types of physical education activities best promote the social development of elementary and secondary pupils?
5. Explain the relationship between health education and the future development of the democratic way of life.
6. Explain how you evaluate the development of attitudes related to "health consciousness" by your pupils.
7. Construct an inventory of the types of safety information that should be presented to all secondary pupils.
8. Should the principles of safe living be introduced as generalizations or as specific, classified information at the elementary level? Explain how these principles can be closely integrated with science and social studies at this level.
9. Why should the school be expected to assume some responsibility for corrective physical education activities?
10. Discuss the relationship between "good health" and "emotional stability."
11. How much responsibility should the school accept for offering instruction in first aid?
12. Explain the statement, "Safe living is more dependent upon the development of proper attitudes than upon the memorization of safety rules."

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Chapter 13. IMPROVING THE CURRICULUM

The welfare of youth is inextricably associated with problems growing out of the necessity for continuous curriculum improvement. An ever-increasing number of adults are aware of the "curriculum problem" and agree that some changes are necessary. One of the most formidable obstacles to improvement develops from the perplexing question: What path leads to the most desirable curriculum?

At one extreme are those who believe that the only adequate curriculum is the one which they knew during their school years. At the other extreme are those who believe that the schools have not accepted their full responsibility for the education of the young and should become even more progressive. If the word improve is used in the sense that it means to grow better or grow in value, it is only reasonable to assume that curriculum improvement implies some type or degree of progression from a previous position.

OPPOSITION TO CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

A literate citizenry is basic to the maintenance of a democratic society. Some critics of modern curriculum practices apparently believe that the basic demands of literacy are not being met in the schools of today. As a result of such belief they advocate turning back the clock and regressing to the limited "three R curriculum" they knew as children. The fears of these people are unfounded, and it is interesting to note that they always want to return to the curriculum of their childhood, not to that which their parents knew as children. It is indeed a sad commentary to think that adults whose parents permitted and encouraged them to progress would in turn deny their children these same privileges.

Since literacy is basic in a democracy, every effort should be made to assemble the evidence necessary to assure all community members that the basic responsibilities of the school are being effectively fulfilled. The school population of a generation ago and of today are not comparable groups, nor do today's children live in a world iden-

tical with that of the children of the last generation. These conditions make any attempt to compare the two groups a difficult practice at its best.

Some opponents of modern curriculum practices maintain that schools are failing to develop ethical values. It is impossible to fully answer this charge until there is a more general understanding of what is meant by "ethical values." If the opponents mean that the schools are not teaching the creed of any particular church group, they are undoubtedly correct. At the same time, they need to be reminded that to do so would be to violate one of the great freedoms of American democracy. If, on the other hand, they mean that the schools are generally "godless" and that modern educational practices are dictated by the "devil," their charge is unquestionably without foundation. Concepts involving such things as morality, due process of law, the responsibility for developing one's talents, the interdependency of men, respect, and the development of acceptable behavior patterns are prominent in all modern school curriculums.¹

It is also possible to find some critics who believe that modern schools are engaging in practices that are subversive in relation to American democracy. This charge is basically without foundation. As a group America's teachers are dedicated to the propositions upon which their democratic government is founded. Intelligent citizenship is, and will always be, a primary objective for instruction in all classrooms. At the same time, the emotional realities that are associated with words such as "patriotism" and "loyalty" are not neglected. During the Second World War millions of young men and women only a relatively few months or weeks removed from the school years responded to the demands of a national emergency with a resolve and general poise that was a tribute to all who were associated with their education. Generally speaking, America's teachers are one of the largest groups who have enough faith and courage in the democratic form of government to compare it with any other form because they know it promises the best way of life for each individual.

Now and then some critic alarms the public by stating that children are not being taught to think. Nothing could be more absurd, for every capable teacher is dedicated to the challenge that is involved

¹ The reader will find it helpful to refer to the chapters directly concerned with social development.

in helping each child develop all the skills he needs to be able to think critically, to base his actions upon reflective thought, and in general to become intelligently self-directive. Teachers further maintain that a child cannot learn to think in a vacuum or to solve problems from which he is entirely isolated. They know that growth is a continuous process, that it must be directed, that one cannot prepare to live tomorrow by being deadened today, and that the accumulated knowledge of mankind can and should be used in the education of young people.

These obstacles to curriculum improvement have developed partly because the distance between teachers and parents has become too great. As the intensity of modern life has increased, parents have expected the schools to assume more and more responsibility for the education of the young. Teachers are gradually beginning to use more and more of the available research information concerning child growth and needs and methods of teaching. The education of a child is a joint enterprise that can be most successfully completed when parents and teachers mutually respect the functions that can best be performed by each. An attitude of condescension on the part of either party can only retard the development of the best curriculum for the child involved.

Increased Taxation. America's dream of an adequate education for "all the children of all the people" can become a reality only if increased financial resources are made available to the schools. The amount of money required to operate an educational program is so immense that it is all but beyond the conception of many taxpayers. Many people do not understand where all of this money comes from or how much their actual contribution is to the total amount. Unquestionably, a tremendous sum is needed to bring about a general improvement in the total educational program. The amount that is actually needed varies from community to community and from state to state. The reason for the variance can be attributed to such things as the instability in building-cost estimates, the inclusion or exclusion of salary increases for teachers, and the administrative reorganization of school districts. In any case, the expense involved appears as less of an obstacle when it is presented as an average cost to each taxpayer and not as a "lump sum" for each state or for the nation. Basically this is a problem involving effective communication. Most persons plan their spending in terms of 5, 10, 100, or at the most a

few thousand dollars. They are not accustomed to planning their spending in terms of \$50,000, \$100,000, 1 million, or 2 billion dollars. It is also important to present the subject of increased cost in terms of what is desirable for children. When this is done, increased expenditures become an investment in freedom, happiness, and full life rather than an obstacle to obtaining things of lesser immediate importance.

It must always be remembered that some degree of curriculum improvement can be made in many schools with very little adjustment in present financial structures. But to build an ever-stronger citizenry educated to solve intelligently the problems that repeatedly infest the world and to purchase and use the products of their own creation will require additional financial support.

Buildings and Equipment. In an age of jet propulsion most people would reject the idea of re-establishing the horse and buggy as a common means of transportation. Would it not be just as absurd to re-establish a curriculum that prepared boys and girls to live in an age of horses and buggies? Many school buildings and a great amount of school equipment in use today were designed for that type of curriculum. Many of these structures are basically good and only need to be modernized. On the other hand, many new classrooms must be built, and many of the old ones should be demolished.

It has previously been indicated that some critics of modern education advocate a return to what they believe to be the old established and well-ordered ways of living. This is nothing more than a doctrine of defeat, an admission of incompetency, an accusation that Americans are incapable of solving the problems that hinder their living a peaceful, full life that is constantly being enriched by their own resourcefulness. A Christian civilization does not turn backward or shirk its responsibilities; it lives fully in the present, plans, and looks forward to the promises of tomorrow.

Teacher Preparation. The shortage of competent teachers will continue to exist as long as those who direct the education of the young continue to believe that other occupations are superior, more rewarding, and of more importance. When the true value of competent teachers to the preservation of American democracy is realized, qualified young people will be directed toward the teaching profes-

sion, and adequate centers for professional teacher preparation will be established. Americans understand the importance of effectively mining the earth for its resources, controlling and preventing disease, interpreting legal statutes and procedures, building broad highways and magnificent structures, flying hundreds of miles each hour, and splitting atoms. They look at these products and accomplishments and sometimes forget that they were accomplished by people who had to be educated. The questions are: (1) Who shall be educated; (2) for what shall they be educated; (3) by whom shall they be educated?

In response to the first question, it is obvious that in a democracy "all" must be educated. This does not mean that "all" must have, or need, the same education. The second question is more difficult. It possesses two overlapping suggestions: (1) The schools have a major function to perform in educating all in the skills, appreciations, and attitudes that are basic to the acceptance of the responsibilities of a democratic citizen; and (2) in helping each individual prepare for and find a place commensurate with his desires and abilities in a world of occupational, economic, recreational, and social interests.

The third question is the most difficult. Many individuals participate in the education of each child. In America the teacher occupies a place of outstanding importance in this group. To perform his task effectively he must possess or develop certain personal and professional qualities. It is impossible to separate these qualities into separate categories. However, this discussion is limited to the enumeration of some characteristics that are primarily professional:²

1. An intense desire to help young people live, and continue to live, a full, useful, happy life.
2. An understanding of the origins, philosophy, purposes and problems of democracy and the intelligence and desire to participate in the direction of the democratic way of life.
3. Competency in the use of the basic "tool subjects," and the degree of mastery in special areas that is necessary in order to effectively direct learning.
4. An understanding of the nature of human growth and development, and the ability to use it in learning situations.

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5. Competency in the use of effective, democratic, psychologically sound methods of teaching, and the ability to alter them in order to most effectively meet the needs of young people.
6. Competency in the use of the evaluative techniques that do most to promote the wholesome growth and development of young people.
7. An intense desire for continuous self-improvement—professional growth.
8. The ability to effectively cooperate with parents in the education of their children.

Curriculum improvement is dependent upon teacher growth. It cannot be legislated into action. Any teacher who believes that he has found the all-time best method of teaching and insists that further improvement is unnecessary is an obstacle to curriculum improvement.

Fear of Loss of Local Control. American education is basically controlled at the local level. Faced by rising school costs and an unequal distribution of resources with which to defray them, it has been advocated that the federal government assume a more active role in the support of public education. It is maintained that one result of this increased federal assistance would be an improved curriculum. Some opponents of this movement insist that increased federal support of the schools will be followed by removing the control of them from the local to the national level. This, they insist, will make it impossible for the schools to effectively deal with local community problems.

In a democracy the government can assume only the responsibilities that its active, participating citizenry wants it to assume. A general improvement in all school curriculums will involve greater financial expenditures. The advantages and disadvantages of increased federal aid should be carefully evaluated in terms of what is possible and best for the children of all the people. Various types of federal assistance are not new. Communities are as different as the people who compose them. The curriculums in all communities might have many striking similarities, but it must always be possible to make local provisions for the differences that do exist. Most fears of this type are based upon the type of misunderstanding which derives from lack of information and prejudice. The final answer to this problem must be given by citizens who are well informed and interested.

Administrative Dictation. School administrators occasionally call staff meetings and state that on a specific date certain changes will be made to improve the curriculum. It never works! Such administrators are an obstacle to improvement of any kind that involves intelligent, democratic human beings. It has truthfully been said that "the curriculum is no better than the curriculum in the mind of the teacher." A teacher whose growth is continually warped and thwarted by a dictatorial administrator cannot teach at his maximum degree of effectiveness. He may become progressively less responsive to pupil needs, and it is to be anticipated that his originality will be curbed.

EVALUATION PRECEDES IMPROVEMENT

There is a beginning but no end to curriculum improvement. The beginning is represented by present practices. The first steps in improvement are to determine as exactly as possible what these practices are and why. When these data have been assembled, a critical attempt should be made to determine if the curriculum is effectively meeting the needs of the school population. It will be possible to develop only a relative answer at this point because the needs of young people change as the world around them changes. This necessitates a continuous modification, in the direction of progress, of all parts of the curriculum.

When the necessary changes and the reasons for them have been determined, it is essential to consider many questions. For example: Do the teachers really understand the necessity for making these changes? Are the teachers prepared to make them? Does the community understand the necessity for making them? Will the community cooperate? How much should be attempted right now? How can the effectiveness of the changes be evaluated? Are the school facilities adequate? Will it be necessary to increase the staff? Innumerable as these questions are they must all be answered and should appear in the continuous evaluation of the evolving curriculum.

Not for Transient Reasons. Curriculum changes should not be made merely to fulfill a momentary whim or desire or in order to be "fashionable." The education of the young is a serious business. It must be built upon a sound foundation, and evaluation must be continuous. When the evaluation reveals that certain changes should be made in order to improve the curriculum, they should be carefully planned, and the execution of them should, in turn, be evaluated.

Instability and insecurity can, but do not necessarily need to, accompany change. Every effort should be made to help teachers, children, administrators, and parents maintain their stability and security when changing the curriculum in order to improve it. If the reasons and necessity for change are understood by all concerned, if adequate preparation is made, and if the necessary facilities are available, instability and insecurity can be held at a minimum. In terms of what is feasible the objective is to maintain the best possible curriculum at all times.

The Fear of Theory. The word "theory" seems to cause a great amount of concern to many who are sincerely interested in better education. It is apparently all right to theorize about anything except the educational program that directly affects children. In all realms of human endeavor theory precedes improved practices. To become of immediate value it must be tried, tested, and modified in the direction of what is possible and desirable in terms of the developmental needs of children. It is not necessary to entirely disrupt or revolutionize the curriculum in order to create a situation in which a new theory can be changed into practice. The interests of no individual will be sacrificed in the process because no professional teacher will introduce a new theory into an actual learning situation until it has been so refined at the hypothetical level that it has a better-than-average possibility of succeeding.

No curriculum is a panacea for all the problems of all young people. The changing conditions that create problems and the differences among young people make it impossible for this to be so. Theory precedes practice and must always be accorded a place of prominence in any field of endeavor in which progress is desirable. Education is certainly such a field.

PREPARING FOR CHANGE

Curriculum improvement is never automatic. It must always be preceded by careful preparation on the part of those who are directly responsible for it. Administrators and teachers must accept the responsibility for leadership, but they must not isolate themselves from the community they serve or from the profession of which they are members. Improvement occurs on an uneven front. That which is new in one community or state may already be a successful practice in another. It is very inefficient and unnecessary for one school

to start from the beginning on a project that is new for them when they might begin at a stage of progression that has already been attained elsewhere. One of the first steps in curriculum improvement should be the establishment of some means for exchanging information with other schools.

Teachers. The professional teacher continually tries to improve himself. He seeks opportunities to participate in many types of programs that will increase his effectiveness as a director of the education of young people. He is willing to share new information and techniques with his fellow teachers in order that they too may become more effective. The education of any one child is a cooperative endeavor in which many teachers participate. It is a continuous process in which each succeeding teacher takes the child at whatever level of achievement he attained under the direction of the preceding teacher and proceeds from that point. An uncooperative or weak teacher makes the educational task of those who follow more difficult. All teachers cannot be expected to possess equal ability but they can be expected to continually strive for self-improvement.

Teachers and parents must also cooperate with each other. Schools are not established to provide for all aspects of child growth and development. Part of this development can be directed most effectively and economically at school, and the other part is an inherent responsibility of the home. If the child is to receive a meaningful and useful education the responsibilities of these two major directors of it must be more clearly defined. The activities of the home and school must be coordinated and should supplement each other. The attempt to more clearly define the responsibilities of each should not result in the erection of a barrier between them. The schools have progressively been forced to accept more and more responsibilities for the education of young people. In a society in which the domestic family is the basic social unit there is surely a limit to the variety of responsibilities the schools should be expected to accept. In a very real sense curriculum improvement depends upon a delimiting of the responsibilities of the school or else an expansion of school personnel and facilities beyond a point that has not yet been contemplated.

Administrators and Supervisors. Curriculum improvement is dependent upon the identification, selection, and retention of "high-quality teachers." As teaching progressively becomes a more attrac-

tive profession, this task should become less difficult. All teachers need access to supervisory assistance that is based upon modern evaluatory procedures and an attitude of helpfulness.³ The concept that a supervisor is an "inspector" or "snoopervisor" has no place in a progressing school.

It is an administrative and supervisory responsibility to create opportunities for teachers to grow in service. This can be done by (1) helping them plan and establish workshop programs; (2) encouraging them to do graduate study and offering guidance in the selection of courses in terms of their needs and in relation to future developments in the curriculum; (3) creating professional and subject-matter reading rooms; (4) providing time for planned interschool visitations; (5) providing the security that is essential for successful experimentation; (6) encouraging them to participate in the selection of the materials and facilities for instruction; and (7) leading in the development of an attitude of mutual respect among all persons who are associated with the educational process. In general, the primary function of administration is to lead in the development of those conditions that make teaching most effective.

Administrators and supervisors must know much about the construction and maintenance of the school plant and about school law, school finance, and parliamentary procedures. But to offer effective leadership in a program for curriculum improvement they must know almost everything about people and community life: What are the optimum conditions for human growth? What do parents want their children to achieve at school? What are the problems pupils will face upon leaving school? What are the qualities of a good citizen? What is meant by the "democratic way of life"? What home conditions exist in the school community? What are the occupations of the community members? What personal factors are involved in good teaching? How do you solicit support for better schools? What are the most popular recreational pursuits in the community? Is the community capable of supporting better schools? What percentage of the people are transient? How can "new" parents and children be most effectively introduced into the school's activities? What does the community think about its teachers?—the school's program? These are only

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examples of many questions the educational leaders in any community must be able to answer. The questions and answers are only the first step. Effective administrators and supervisors must be able to use them to improve the educational program.

IMPROVEMENT, AN EVOLUTIONARY PROCESS

Curriculum improvement, like growth, is a continuous process. It ordinarily does not occur suddenly or in a revolutionary manner.⁴ It cannot be dictated or legislated into being. It can be no better than the teachers are capable of making it. In a final analysis, it will not be accepted by a community unless they understand it.

Good schools are basic to the maintenance and growth of the democratic way of life. As this way of life prospers and progresses toward the closer approximation of those beliefs upon which it is founded, the schools must also progress. Should the schools lead in social progress? This is a debatable question, but it can certainly be said that they should not lag behind.

A school is conceived. If it is nourished it grows. If it is developed in such a way that the maximum potentialities to be obtained from it are realized, its growth must be evaluated and planned. The rate of progress will be uneven but it must be constant. Step by step, faltering occasionally when the pace is too great, rebuffed continually by critics who are afraid of tomorrow, the school must seek opportunities to improve its curriculum.

SUMMARY

There are many seemingly perennial obstacles to curriculum improvement. They involve such things as the determination of curriculum content, increased school expenditures, the continuous in-service growth of teachers, and the development of a philosophy of school administration that is compatible with the democratic way of life. None of these obstacles are insurmountable and in many cases exist only because the distance between the schools and those whose children they serve has become too great. America is proud of her school system but rightly wants to consider it as something personal rather than as an inanimate object.

⁴ If educators and the general public insist that television be intelligently employed as an educational medium, it may well become the first instrument to have a revolutionary effect upon the educational process.

The preprofessional education of teachers is a profound responsibility. It depends upon the guidance of an adequate number of competent young people toward the profession and upon the creation and modernization of professional centers for teacher education. Teacher shortage and inadequate centers will be problems of the past when teaching is accorded the place of prominence and importance it must occupy in a democratic society.

Curriculum changes should not be made for transient reasons. Improvement in this respect is an evolving process that must be based upon a continuous program of evaluation that includes all factors that influence the educational process. This is an enormous task that can be accomplished only if all professional educational personnel are prepared to share in the responsibility for it. Effective modern supervision is essential if the action indicated by such evaluation is to become a reality. The curriculum for schools in a changing and prospering society must, in part, be continually experimental.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. Explain the methods used in your school community to help parents and other community members understand the nature of your curriculum, its strong points, and weaknesses.

2. Describe the types of situations you create specifically for the purpose of helping pupils develop "ethical values."

3. Construct an inventory of the additional facilities, materials, equipment, and staff that are needed to implement the curriculum changes which you think are mandatory at your school.

4. What necessary curriculum changes could be made at your school without adding additional facilities, materials, equipment, and faculty members? What steps must be taken to implement these changes?

5. Describe the sources from which your school derives financial support. What changes do you think should be made in the school finance structure of your community and state? In your opinion, what part should teachers play in promoting these changes?

6. Evaluate the program for supervision in your school community.

7. Discuss the nature of the responsibility that teachers should accept for the professional preparation of prospective teachers.

8. What can teachers do to help ensure a continuous and adequate flow of competent young people to the teaching profession?

9. Outline a program for evaluating your curriculum.

10. What place does theory hold in your present curriculum structure?

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Chapter 14. THE CURRICULUM FOR TOMORROW

Tomorrow is always a new day. Those who believe that the democratic concepts provide the best basis for life sincerely hope that in the future man's relationships to other men and to his physical environment will be more harmonious. The school is an institution that exists for the primary purpose of creating the types of learning opportunities that are basic to the creation of such harmony. If the schools are to fulfill the requirements of this primary function, it is imperative that the curriculum be realistically evaluated and reconstructed in relation to the objectives for education. This reconstruction process must always be conceived against the background of information that indicates the nature of the most effective ways of learning.

THE OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATION

Any statement of the objectives for education should be an indication of the characteristics an individual should possess in order to make him a better citizen in the local and larger communities of which he is a member. To determine these characteristics it is necessary to analyze the complete job or functions of such a citizen. This analysis will almost unalterably result in a statement of a series of objectives for education similar to those presented in Chapter 2. It is not difficult to establish these objectives, and there is a very real possibility that too much time is wasted in trying to restate them in a more modern or unique manner. The degree of emphasis applied to the attainment of any single objective may vary from time to time, but as long as it relates to the basic functions of good citizenship in a democracy the over-all pattern will not change.

The problem of paramount importance in any school at any time is the creation of a curriculum that will help young people more nearly approximate the objectives. To create such a curriculum it is necessary to analyze the various life activities associated with each objective and then to provide learning experiences based upon these activities. This, in turn, is not such a simple process because the ac-

tivities associated with each objective are all interrelated, and this interrelationship is reflected in all statements that refer to the "whole child" or the "whole person."

It is relatively simple to define the activities associated with some objectives but exceedingly complex to develop learning experiences that fulfill the requirements of others. For example, there is a considerable amount of disagreement concerning the "best method" of teaching the fundamental processes of reading and arithmetic. Despite these arguments over method, all educational personnel agree that reading and arithmetic should be assigned a place of prominence in the curriculum. As a matter of fact, there is a great amount of agreement about the grade placement of various basic reading and arithmetical skills. The disagreement that does exist is usually associated with the degree of advanced proficiency that all should try to attain in relation to these areas. In a like manner a considerable amount of agreement exists concerning the curriculum for such things as health and various forms of occupational education.

When educational personnel begin to analyze the activities associated with the objectives related to "ethical character," "worthy home membership," or self-realization, disagreement becomes the order of the day. In the first place, no one is precise in his definition of these terms or objectives. They agree that these objectives refer to areas of great intrinsic value but are not sure that the school can assume the responsibility for constructing a curriculum that pertains to them. If the school is responsible for making each community a better place in which to live, it is hard to understand how an adequate curriculum can be constructed that intentionally avoids these areas. It is granted that ethical character cannot be precisely described, measured, or classified in a strictly scientific manner. It is not granted that for this reason or for reasons based entirely upon emotional inadequacies that the school personnel should avoid these areas to the extent that they consciously eliminate learning experiences associated with them. If the level of human dignity for which the world has yearned for so long is ever to be approximated, curriculum reform based upon a conscious analysis of the human and spiritual qualities of good living must be implemented. The curriculum maker who wants "to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to

ourselves and posterity" must surely look beyond the realm of simple materialism.

Curriculum Unity. The international conflicts and economic instabilities of this century have challenged democracy to lift itself to an ever-higher plane of efficiency, vision, and service. The great majority of the people have a steadfast faith in the principle of government by and for the people. With the exhaustion of the land frontier to the west, the increased expansion of urbanization, and inequalities between the power to produce and to consume have come intense curriculum problems. The intelligent citizen must be able to understand and willing to act upon these problems as they occur. This understanding and willingness can be developed only through a curriculum that has been consciously created for that purpose.

It is obvious that a standardized curriculum cannot be developed that will be equally efficient in all communities. At the same time, it is important to understand that no community or age level is isolated from the impact of the present problems now affecting democracy at the local, national, and world levels. Each community will continue to face local problems, and the curriculum must always be flexible enough to provide adequate training for solving them. But if the schools are to educate youth so that they are able to think critically about the larger current issues in a democracy and understand and interpret the future as it unfolds, more unity must exist in some phases of the curriculum. The intelligent and patriotic democratic citizen must know what is occurring in the social, political, and economic world around him and must have the opportunity to learn to use the methods and tools that facilitate problem solving. Such learning can be effective only when it is active—when it is applied to problems that the pupil understands as being important and alive in relation to him and his associates.

General and Specialized Education. A certain amount of controversy surrounds the proportioning of school time between general and specialized education. Unfortunately, these two major parts of many curriculums are often viewed as separate entities. Actually, the differentiated aspects of any part of any curriculum exist only to help all educational personnel better provide for the differences in aptitudes, interests, and needs that exist among pupils and the communities from which they come.

It is not a prerogative of the general educational parts of the curriculum to include experiences in citizenship as something apart and different from a vocational curriculum. Different types of experiences are often provided, but the recognition of the dignity of work is an important characteristic of the good citizen. One cannot consider himself to be a citizen one moment and a worker the next. The good citizen is a person of many characteristics, all of which are present all of the time. The education of the good citizen is composed of many characteristics, all of which contribute to the development of the whole individual. It is important for teachers, parents, and pupils to understand the relationship of all parts of the curriculum to the whole. Misunderstanding at this point can only result in confusion, "course taking," and in much wasted time.

Community Institutions as Educative Factors. The school is only one of the factors in each community that has a responsibility for the education of young people. Churches, homes, stores, motion-picture theatres, clubs, and civic organizations are representative of the types of institutions in each community that influence the school's curriculum. Teachers must be students of the communities in which they teach if they are to understand the sources of the various types of experiences that pupils must use or cope with as they are directed through various types of learning activities. It is not enough for a teacher to merely know that there are so many churches, stores, underprivileged homes, or theatres; he must know what these various institutions or establishments stand for in relation to education.

Public apathy toward the curriculum can undermine its effectiveness. Many plans have been tried to gain public support for, and interest in, the curriculum. All community institutions and organizations have a role to play in the establishment of an around-the-clock education for young people that is in harmony with the objectives for education. The school should accept a leadership role in this respect, but it cannot expect cooperation unless it first helps the public develop an understanding of the curriculum. Each community has a large investment in its schools. The citizens in each community can only realize a return on this investment as they understand how the school's curriculum continually contributes toward making life in general a more satisfying experience.

INTEGRATION

The curriculum of tomorrow must be largely composed of many integrated learning activities. Isolated bits of information are meaningless until they are associated with other types of information that logically should be associated with them. Reading instruction must be coordinated with, and supplemented by, social studies just as algebra must be integrated with physics.

The curriculum is the means by which young people are educated. It must never be regarded as a classification of measured and segregated information that is to be injected into the passive uninterested mind of a young person. The notion that English is one thing and biology is another has no place in a world that is trying to understand the nature of the problems that have arisen as a result of the social and technological revolutions that continue to characterize modern history. Through the logical integration of information and activities that belong together, the pupils of tomorrow can participate in learning experiences that are mutually supplementary, coordinated, and democratically directed.

ADMINISTRATIVE FLEXIBILITY

The administrator of tomorrow must be able to administer a curriculum that is very fluid. The tight compartmentalization of subject matter that frequently accompanies departmentalization or area assignments must be de-emphasized. Administrative arrangements that enable teachers to combine areas of learning or to shorten or extend the time allotments usually assigned to specific topics and subjects must be forthcoming. Certainly it is conceivable that an administrative policy that is not anarchical can be developed to provide for this fluidity.

Problems and Projects. Methods associated with problems and projects will occupy an important place in the curriculum of tomorrow. They will supplant practices that encourage the rote memorization of material that can be used by pupils only to pass tests and examinations that merely serve as a basis for pupil rating. These problems and projects will not be based upon a momentary whim. They will be directed by the teacher, and the pupil growth that occurs while working on them must contribute to making the community a better place in which to live. To work as a cooperative group member, or

independently, upon a socially significant problem or project will require that the pupil be able to use the fundamental tools of learning. It will be a responsibility of the teacher to determine the effectiveness with which such tools are used and to provide for the correction of deficiencies when they are evident.

The administrative organization of the curriculum for tomorrow must provide for sequential learning experiences within the fluid arrangement that permits a more extensive use of the problem-project method. Within this plan the administrator-supervisor-teacher relationships must be closer than they have ever been before. Faculty planning, teacher-pupil planning, and an adequate and usable set of pupil-growth records will be factors of extreme importance. Careful direction by the teacher, who will be helped by a cooperative and competent supervisor, will ensure that a pupil will not repeat one project over and over in relation to a pre-established hierarchy of topics of interest only to the teacher. Instead, the pupils, cooperatively and independently, will be helped to understand the complexities of modern life by engaging in a series of planned, coordinated, and mutually supplementary projects.

Very few of the important citizenship problems in the modern world, at the pupil or adult level, can be answered by simply recalling a date, adding a column of numbers, or reciting a few isolated lines of poetry. It cannot be assumed that pupils who experience a curriculum geared to activities such as these will by some magical method become capable of solving problems that embrace many areas. For this reason it is advocated that the problem-project method, which has been used successfully in both adult and child life, become more predominant in the general curriculum structure.

Specialists and the Curriculum. All professional teachers are specialists in the art of directing pupil learning activities. The problem, at this point, is to consider the role of the teachers who direct their attention toward instruction in a specialized area such as speech correction, remedial reading, higher mathematics, or the occupational skills involved in a particular task. The role of these teachers will be of increasing importance in the curriculum of tomorrow, but they must be considered as an integral part of it—not as a group that is removed from it by specialization.

It is useless to eulogize "freedom of speech" unless young people are helped to communicate effectively by speaking. There is no

point in attempting to read unless one can understand and profit by that which is read. No valid purpose is served by forcing pupils into a study of higher mathematics for which they have no use and perhaps no aptitude. This does not mean that teachers and pupils might completely waste their time and energies in such pursuits, but, relatively speaking, they will probably profit more by directing their attention to other types of learning activities. In a world that moves on the machinations of applied science it is unreasonable to expect any teacher to have equal proficiency in all occupational skills whether they involve the operation of a bulldozer or the manipulative ability that is essential in a physical-science laboratory.

The administrative organization of the school for tomorrow must include a plan for efficiently guiding pupils toward those specialties in which they can find satisfying work experiences. In all probability, a large part of this experience will be supervised by specialists but provided in the various occupational centers of the community. The administrator will be responsible for causing a job analysis of related occupations to be made available. Upon the basis of this analysis he and his special teachers will be able to more effectively use the community for an occupational experience center. Here, again, a flexible administrative plan is necessary because the entire community cannot be expected to readjust its life to conform to a schedule of school bells that usually ring automatically and always impersonally.

THE CURRICULUM FOR TOMORROW

In the twentieth century American democracy occupies a unique position in the world of political thought. It continues to emerge as the one major form of government that provides a high degree of personal freedom and the over-all stability that is basic to progress. It retains its confidence in the basic worth of all citizens and is secure in the belief that the principle of "popular rule" will continue to stand the test of time. The released creativity of its citizens has placed it in a position of world leadership. This position poses new challenges and makes new demands at home and abroad. These challenges and demands are sometimes quite frustrating, they dig deeply, but from the hearts and minds of those who believe in American democracy will come the strength to meet them.

Growth, as measured in life, is a continuing process. No one generation alone can provide the strength that is necessary to accept

the responsibilities that come with the continuous expansion of the democratic concept of freedom. Each generation will record some advancements and leave some problems that are either new or the results of failure in some sphere of experimentation or action. In a democracy all youth must have the opportunity to develop all of their abilities. This can occur only through the medium of a good educational program in which the necessity for continuous curriculum evaluation and advancement is recognized as the central problem. The curriculum for yesterday was possibly all right for the era in which it was created. But yesterday is now a part of the historical record, and all forward-looking educational personnel must be concerned with the curriculum for tomorrow.

GENERAL EDUCATION IS THE FOUNDATION

The schools must help young people develop the competencies on which their society depends. In the general curriculum these competencies are not primarily concerned with specialized functions. They are the competencies that each citizen needs in order to live as an efficient community member. They are the basic competencies that have been translated into statements of objectives for education.

In the general-education curriculum each individual must have many opportunities to develop social competence. This involves the ability or desire to work and play cooperatively with others, to accept responsibilities, to be self-directive when working or playing independently, to seek opportunities to be of service, to be appreciative for what others do for you, and, in general, to improve the standard of living of your group. The development of social competence is basically a problem in human relationships that involves (1) the ability to use English effectively and efficiently in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; (2) the ability to think quantitatively and qualitatively and to use the basic arithmetical processes to simplify many aspects of daily living; (3) an appreciation of efficient problem-solving techniques, the major scientific generalizations, and people who have made them possible; (4) an appreciation of America's heritage, involving its relationships with other nations; (5) an appreciation of the importance of mental, physical, and emotional health; (6) an appreciation of the importance of conservation as it applies to human beings as well as the physical environment; (7) an appre-

ciation of beauty as it is revealed through art, music, and the natural environment; and (8) an appreciation of the ethical characteristics that should govern the relationships between all men.

Many of these factors are included in general-education curriculums at the present time. However, many of them are included only on an incidental basis and only infrequently are they integrated. The challenge is for teachers to cooperatively and consciously integrate these various factors in such a way that the type of active, intelligent citizenship that will progressively improve democratic community life will be a result of the school's curriculum.

The Expanding Community. In the modern world it is desirable for the schools to help all individuals develop citizenship and civilizing competencies that transcend local community boundaries. It is dramatically important for all individuals to try to understand the problems of the world about them. The analysis of the nature of the origins of prejudice, bias, and antidemocratic attitudes must occupy a place of prominence in the curriculum of tomorrow. Rivers, mountain ranges, oceans, and armed lines of defense no longer effectively protect men from each other nor from the standpoint of time and space do they serve as barriers to separate them. The principal barriers that separate men today are found in their minds and are expressed in terms of fear, uncertainty, prejudice, and misunderstanding.

There is no quick way to remove the barriers that exist in the minds of men and prevent all individuals from enjoying and participating in life to the fullest degree. It is equally evident that these barriers cannot be removed unless a concentrated attack is leveled against them. Unquestionably, the schools must accept a large responsibility for helping young people develop a more objective attitude toward others regardless of the groups to which they belong or the characteristics they have inherited. This does not mean that the ideals of democracy will be lowered, that dangers to the democratic way of life will go unrecognized, or that adequate preparation will not be made to defend democracy. It does mean that each generation will make progress toward the goal of basing their actions upon reflective thought that is in turn based upon a more precise interpretation of the available evidence. It further means that the future actions of American citizens will be "directed by a judicious

estimate of our true interests, unperplexed and unbiased by considerations not connected with the public good.”¹

Understanding cannot freely occur on a unilateral basis. It depends upon a free exchange of opinions and ideas by all parties involved. American educational personnel should do all in its power to promote such an exchange. The rate of progress may be slow, but it is imperative that it be constant. Many types of materials, literature, personnel letters, and works of music and art are now being exchanged. Many schools have engaged in programs designed to help those who are less privileged or who have not had the opportunity to develop their resources. The curriculum of tomorrow should make provision for expanding and intensifying activities of this type. To develop understanding the emphasis must not be upon the volume or rate of exchange but upon what it stands for in terms of the ethics of democracy. The principles upon which citizenship in a democracy is based are not an enumerated series of items to be memorized—they are concepts of life that must become living habits.

Work and Guidance. The free individual should not live parasitically or receive compensation for work that is not commensurate with the effort that is required or the service rendered. This is a problem that involves attitudes, guidance, and values.

The individuals who believe the world owes them a living, that any contribution they make through work is unimportant, or that the sensible way to hold a job is to do the minimum amount of required work are merely exhibiting attitudes they have learned. The curriculum of tomorrow must offer each individual many consciously planned opportunities to develop positive attitudes toward work. To do this it will be necessary to help each individual evaluate all work done in terms of the meaning he associates with it. The pupil who writes five hundred consecutive times, “I am a bad boy,” or outlines thirty pages of history for “reciting out of turn” might, in a sense, be working, but he might also be convincing himself that he is no good. Activities such as these must be deleted from the curriculum, for they contribute nothing to the meaningful development of positive attitudes toward work or to the general social development of the persons involved. From the first days in school

¹ Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, James Madison, *The Federalist*, No. 1, p. 3, Modern Library, Inc., New York, 1937.

each pupil must be encouraged to engage in work activities that continually lead him toward a realization of the objectives for education.

The possibilities of developing planned work-experience programs in cooperation with many types of local community establishments or agencies have not been fully explored. There are many reasons to believe that such experiences should become an increasingly integral part of the curriculum. Those who plan the curriculum for tomorrow will undoubtedly explore the possibilities of using more activities of this type.

Dissatisfaction with work is frequently the result of an over-emphasis on manipulative skills and unrealistic guidance that begins too late. In the school of tomorrow planned adequate guidance programs will involve all children from the time that they begin school and will be available to them during their post-school years. Every effort will be made to help each individual develop the social as well as the manipulative competence he needs to be a well-adjusted member of a working team. His interests and abilities will be carefully studied, and through improved counseling procedures every effort will be made to help him select an occupation in which he has at least a reasonable opportunity to gain employment and be successful.

The guidance program will give due recognition to local and national problems of occupational supply and demand. The study of such problems will be a part of the continuous evaluation of the curriculum, which will be flexible enough to admit new work experiences as a need for them is indicated and delete older practices when they are no longer useful.

In the curriculum of tomorrow young people will have many experiences that will help them re-evaluate the usefulness and significance of many types of occupations. A variety of services must be rendered in any community if its members are to live happily, safely, and successfully. For example, all urban communities are dependent upon workmen who assist in the removal and disposal of refuse just as they are dependent upon mechanics, sales personnel, and many types of professional people. The implement repairman is essential to the farmer though his work might not receive the acclaim that is accorded to the developer of hybrid seeds. It is important for all citizens to appreciate and commend the many contribu-

tions that are made by workmen in many occupations. As this type of attitude develops, it is fair to assume that compensation for work will be more commensurate to the effort expended and the service rendered.

Emotional Stability in an Uncertain World. The revolution in social and technological institutions has created many life-adjustment problems that will exist for some time. In all probability a large percentage of young men will continue to be faced with the prospect of entering military service. The evolving curriculum must include experiences that help them adjust to this type of life and to the life that follows. Many young women will also enter military service, and many more will enter occupations that have previously been closed to them. These conditions will undoubtedly alter the marriage plans of the nation's young people, and such alteration will emphasize and uncover more curriculum problems. Adequate curriculum experiences must be provided that will help these young citizens develop values that are not characterized by superficiality or momentarily changed for sheer emotional reasons.

The progressing democratic way of life depends upon a social organization characterized jointly by stability and freedom at all times. The conduct of democratic citizens is frequently governed by values of great intrinsic worth that cannot be precisely measured, classified, and defined by the methods of pure science. The curriculum of tomorrow must be directly concerned with the moral and ethical qualities of the good citizen in a society that is characterized by stability, freedom, creativity, and the realization of peaceful, intelligent methods of problem arbitration.

LIST OF VISUAL AIDS

The motion pictures and filmstrips listed in the following visual bibliography can be used to supplement the material presented in this book. For the convenience of readers and potential film users, the films have been grouped in two categories—those dealing with general aspects of curriculum and those concentrating upon specific curricular subjects. It should be recognized, however, that in some instances the same film may be used in connection with several different chapters. For this reason it is recommended that the film be reviewed before using in order to determine its suitability for a particular group.

Both motion pictures and filmstrips are included in this visual bibliography, and the character of each is indicated by the self-explanatory abbreviations "MP" and "FS." Immediately following this identification is the name of the producer; if the distributor is different from the producer, the name of the distributor follows. The addresses of these producers are listed at the end of the bibliography. In most instances, the films can be borrowed or rented from local or state 16-mm. film libraries. (A nationwide list of these local sources is given in *A Directory of 2002 16mm Film Libraries*, available for 35 cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.) Unless otherwise indicated, the motion pictures are 16-mm. sound black-and-white films, and the filmstrips are 35-mm. black-and-white silent.

This bibliography is suggestive only, and film users should examine the latest annual edition and quarterly supplements of *Educational Film Guide*, a catalogue of some 10,000 films published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York. The *Guide*, a standard reference book, is available in most college and public libraries.

GENERAL ASPECTS OF CURRICULUM

And So They Live (MP, NYU, 25 min). Poverty of the land in a rural community; lack of proper diet, housing, and sanitation; and the need for a closer relationship between the school program and the needs of the community.

Assignment: Tomorrow (MP, NEA, 26 min). Importance of the teacher and the public school in preserving the American way of life. Stresses community needs and the role of the teacher in meeting such needs.

A Better Tomorrow (MP, OWI/UWF, 24 min). Shows activities of children and youth in the New York City public schools and stresses the values of free public education open to all.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 1: Developing Pupil Interest (MP, McGraw, 13 min). Contrasts a conventional, teacher-dominated lesson with an informal class in which teachers and students plan and work together. (Correlated filmstrip, 33 fr, also available.)

Broader Concept of Method. Part 2: Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Students learning to work together in class projects with the help and guidance of the teacher. (Correlated filmstrip, 37 fr, also available.)

Centralized School (FS, ACE, 54 fr). Plant and equipment, building interiors and exteriors, school activities, and classes in a centralized school. (Accompanying lecture notes.)

Community Resources in Teaching (MP, Iowa U, 20 min). How a community and its school can work together by having the students use the community as a resource laboratory and the leaders of the community go into the school as lecturers or demonstrators.

A Core Curriculum Class in Action (FS, Wayne, 46 fr). Follows a ninth-grade core class from its first meeting through various teacher-pupil-planned activities to final evaluation of the project.

Design of American Public Education (MP, McGraw, 16 min). Animated cartoons and drawings compare and contrast an "assembly-line" educational system with one geared to meet the needs of today's young people. Explains the "design" of American education as one devoted to people, not merely to method.

Education for All American Children (FS, NEA, 52 fr). Illustrates the major conclusions and recommendations in the 1948 report, with the same title, of the Educational Policies Commission.

The Elementary School (MP, Va Ed, 70 min, color). Presents in three parts characteristics of good elementary schools in Virginia. Part 1 (25 min) deals with general aspects of schools and with physical and mental health of pupils. Part 2 (25 min) emphasizes activities in communication, numbers, practical and fine arts. Part 3 (20 min) deals mainly with experiences in science and the social studies.

Importance of Goals (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Discusses the principle that all education is essentially a process of attaining basic meaningful goals and illustrates this concept through a brief case history of a thirteen-year-old student. (Correlated filmstrip, 38 fr, also available.)

Individual Differences (MP, McGraw, 23 min). Points out, through the case history of a maladjusted boy overshadowed by his older brother, the necessity for education to meet the needs of individuals. (Correlated filmstrip, 49 fr, also available.)

Learning to Understand Children. Part 1: A Diagnostic Approach (MP, McGraw, 20 min). Case study of a fifteen-year-old girl, badly maladjusted in school, and of the teacher's attempts to learn the causes of the girl's maladjustment. (Correlated filmstrip, 37 fr also available.)

Learning to Understand Children. Part 2. A Remedial Program (MP, McGraw, 22 min). Continuation of Part 1 showing the teacher's program, curricular and instructional, to help the girl become adjusted to herself and to the school environment. (Correlated filmstrip, 34 fr, also available.)

Motivating the Class (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Portrays a young mathematics teacher adjusting his techniques to the understandings and needs of his classes, and emphasizes that motivation is essential to teaching and learning. (Correlated filmstrip, 41 fr, also available.)

Near Home (MP, BIS, 25 min). Class and teacher study the community in which they live. Illustrates principles basic to good teaching.

One-teacher School (FS, ACE, 57 fr). Plant and equipment, facilities, classes, and activities in a one-teacher school. (Accompanying lecture notes.)

Our Town Is Our Classroom (MP, USA/UWF, 22 min). Shows pupils learning about the government of their town by sitting in on the town's council meetings, listening to court sessions, and attending meetings of citizens and public officials.

Principles of the Art and Science of Teaching (MP, Iowa U, 55 min). Illustrates through the activities of a high-school class in American history three principles of good teaching: (1) formulation of objectives, (2) selection of content and activities, (3) adaptation of method.

The Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Drop-out (MP, McGraw, 20 min). Characteristics of the high-school program which led Steve Martin to leave school as soon as possible. (Correlated filmstrip, 40 fr, also available.)

The Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Stay-in (MP, McGraw, 19 min). How "dropouts" can be reduced when individual needs are met in a school program that stresses learning in terms of adjustment to everyday living. (Correlated filmstrip, 41 fr, available.)

The School and the Community (MP, McGraw, 14 min color). Animated cartoons and drawings illustrate the traditional and modern concepts of the relationship between the school and its community. (Correlated filmstrip, 31 fr, also available.)

School in Centreville (MP, NEA, 20 min). Illustrative example of a rural school with a program geared to the needs of its community.

The School: The Child's Community (MP, Wayne, 16 min). How the school can encourage children to accept responsibilities and share in the making of decisions. Emphasizes the many "community" activities of an elementary school.

Teacher as Observer and Guide (MP, TC, 20 min). Classroom situations emphasizing the importance of the teacher as an observer and a guide of pupil growth and development.

We Plan Together (MP, TC, 21 min). How an eleventh-grade group plan cooperatively their classwork.

Wilson Dam School (MP, TVA, 21 min). Daily activities, instructional methods and materials, and curricular objectives of the Wilson Dam School in Alabama.

SPECIAL ASPECTS OF CURRICULUM

Bridges for Ideas (MP, USC, 28 min). Examines communications media as bridges for ideas, and emphasizes the importance to teachers, students, and citizens of understanding modern means of mass communication.

Education through Art and Home Economics (MP, TC, 9 min). How a sewing project can provide opportunities for girls to acquire basic skills in both art and home economics.

Giving a Shop Demonstration (MP, USN/UWF, 18 min). How a shop teacher prepares for and demonstrates to a class of Navy trainees the making of a flanged tray. Illustrates elements of a good demonstration and how this method of teaching can be used effectively.

Helping Children Discover Arithmetic (MP, Wayne, 15 min). Portrays an arithmetic project in the third grade and draws generalizations concerning the methods of teaching arithmetic.

Learning Democracy through School-Community Projects (MP, Mich U/Locke, 22 min). How the public schools of Michigan provide opportunities for students to experience democracy by participating in school and community projects. Curricular innovations, extracurricular activities, and methods of instruction.

Physical Education Instructor (MP, Va Ed, 11 min). Importance of good organization in a physical education program through the illustration of a girl's physical education class which is well organized and conducted.

The Safest Way (MP, AAA, 18 min). Illustrates, through a class project in safety education, basic principles of good teaching, the uses of audio-visual methods, and democracy in the classroom.

The School That Learned to Eat (MP, Gen Mills, 21 min). How a school and a community cooperated to put into practice a nutritional program.

Teaching Materials Center (MP, Va Ed, 12 min). Depicts values to the classroom teacher of a teaching-materials center; materials and resources available from a good center; organization of such a center.

DIRECTORY OF SOURCES

AAA—American Automobile Association, 17th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

ACE—American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

BIS—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Gen Mills—General Mills, Film Library, 400 Second Ave., Minneapolis 1.

Iowa U—State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Locke—Locke Films, Inc., 120 W. Lovell St., Kalamazoo, Mich.

- McGraw—McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42d St., New York 36.
- Mich U—University of Michigan, School of Education, Ann Arbor, Mich. (Films distributed by Locke Films.)
- NEA—National Education Association, 1201—16th St., Washington, D.C.
- NYU—New York University, Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York 3.
- OWI—Office of War Information, Overseas Branch, Washington, D.C. (Terminated in 1945. Functions transferred to U.S. Department of State. Films released for use in U.S. through U.S. Office of Education.)
- TC—Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
- TVA—Tennessee Valley Authority, Film Services, Knoxville, Tenn.
- USA—U.S. Department of the Army, Washington 25, D.C. (Films released for public educational use through U.S. Office of Education and sold by United World Films, Inc.)
- USC—University of Southern California, Audio-Visual Services, Los Angeles.
- USN—U.S. Department of the Navy, Washington 25, D.C. (Films released for public educational use through U.S. Office of Education and sold by United World Films, Inc.)
- UWF—United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.
- Va Ed—Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond, Va.
- Wayne U—Wayne University, Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Detroit.

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